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Elements of Supervision

INDUSTRIAL MANAGEMENT,

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ELEMENTS OF SUPERVISION

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PREFACE

For many years in management circles the functions of an executive have been discussed under three headings, namely, organization, deputization, and supervision. With each crisis in management, renewed emphasis is placed upon each of these three functions, especially supervision. This was true during World War I, 1914-1918, during the expansion of the nineteen twenties, and more recently during the present international crisis. During any period of rapid industrial expansion or rapid shifting from one type of activity to another, almost invariably two bottlenecks or shortages develop, a shortage in skilled mechanics and an insufficient supply of trained supervisors. It is only natural that both of these shortages should develop since men become skilled in either of these fields only by careful planning and long-run training. During slack periods business curtails its training programs either from necessity or because of the short-run viewpoint which prevails in most enterprises.

Although publication was hastened by the demand for an increase in the effectiveness and number of supervisors for our defense program, this book, whose material has been developed over a period of more than twenty years of industrial experience and consultation, is designed not only for use in the current emergency but also for the long-run program, which it is hoped industry will not abandon with the first signs of a contraction in the present production demands. In writing a book for general use it is, of course, necessary to omit the names of a particular enterprise that may elect to use it in its training program. The industrial leaders in training programs will do well to direct the attention of the members of their conference groups to the fact that they will profit by relating the material to their own jobs. This task is by no means as difficult as some inexperienced leaders think. As a matter of fact, many of the problems in the different units of the same plant are as diverse as between plants. The press room and the trim shop in an automobile body shop illustrate these differences.

In up-grading supervisors the question is often raised as to whether or not men of different executive levels should be handled in the same group. This question cannot readily be answered. Individual dif-

ferences exist among supervisors of the same level, as well as among supervisors of different levels. The senior author has with excellent results conducted training conferences where the plant manager sat in each conference, attending six different conferences each week on the same subject. This particular plant manager at the beginning of the conferences said in substance: "In this training program it is our desire to develop constructive thinking, as well as to impart additional information to our supervisory force, when additional information is needed. No man will be questioned outside of this room because of any opinion he may express in these conferences on controversial subjects. Should I ever in a moment of forgetfulness violate this promise, please remind me of the broken promise and I shall immediately apologize." For the first few conferences, discussion was slightly restricted by the presence of the manager. The manager on several occasions repeated his statement which was reproduced in the minutes of the meetings. Soon the reserve disappeared and the conferences were immensely successful both from the standpoint of the manager and his men. Some managers are not so forthright as the one referred to above and by all means should not depress the training program by their presence.

The question of the method or procedure to be used in conducting training programs is often raised. During the past twenty years the *conference method* has been emphasized, sometimes to a degree not warranted by the facts of the situation. The conference method is highly desirable when discussing questions concerning which the group has had experience, yet it is not suited to the presentation of new material. New material may be presented by the lecture method, by a combination of the lecture and quiz method, by the laboratory or experimental method, by the sound or silent movie, by the use of sound slides, by the use of slides with the lecture explanation, or by any combination of these. It is a mistake to make a fetish of any one system. Variety stimulates interest and meets the requirements of individual differences more than one set formula of presentation. In any event, the leader should carefully plan his work and supplement the content by a dynamic personality.

Should the supervisory training be conducted by the regular operating force or by a specialist, either within the organization or from the outside? There is little doubt that the ideal leader should be the regular line officer, provided he has the necessary training, ability, and time to devote to the task. Unfortunately, most operating officers do not have either the proper background or the time to conduct a detailed follow-up training program. Even though the line officers

do not actually conduct the training program, they should be tied in with the administration of the training through master conferences or at least advisory committees; or it may not achieve what they would like to have it accomplish. In a large institution some of the executives may conduct their training programs, and the staff or outside specialist may conduct the others. If an outsider is brought in, he should be given counsel by the operating executives so that he can do the things that are desired. Frequently consultants from management firms or specialists from universities may be secured to aid or to conduct the training program. Business firms have conducted training programs with success by the use of any of the foregoing leaders.

The authors wish to acknowledge with thanks the assistance given them by Mr. A. R. Kelso, Assistant General-Manager of the United States Cartridge Co., St. Louis, Mo.; Mr. C. W. Roberts, Director of Training, also of the United States Cartridge Co.; Major Albert Sobey, Director of the General Motors Institute of Technology, whose philosophy of management has influenced the thinking of the senior author; Professors S. C. Andrews, Frank Henry, and Chester Willard of Northwestern University, whose friendly counsel has contributed to the general approach. They wish to acknowledge their indebtedness also to the practitioners and authors whose works have both directly and indirectly influenced their writing.

The authors wish to express their special appreciation to the late Richard H. Lansburgh for granting permission to quote directly from Lansburgh and Spriegel's *Industrial Management*. Some of the discussions and ideas are taken directly from *Industrial Management*.

WM. R. SPRIEGEL
EDWARD SCHULZ

Evanston, Illinois
July 1, 1942

INTRODUCTION

As this is written, every supervisor in industry must realize that he is, as every supervisor was in 1917-18, an officer in an army as important to our national program as any other officer found at military posts scattered throughout the country or across the seas. However, the conditions in industry today have made the supervisor's work far different from what it was during the last World War. At that time the supervisor's responsibility was largely concerned with the material side of production, but one need only refer to the Contents of this book to recognize the tremendous increase in the responsibilities of today's supervisor.

The supervisor is the key man in industry today, representing the management to the men, and the men to management. He is the middleman, the connecting link between management and men, and in this position he is really on the spot. The relationship between men and management is the variable factor in the industrial picture. Blueprints, production schedules, and departmental assignments can be fixed, but human nature is the unpredictable and unknown quantity.

The supervisor's job is essentially one of human engineering or human relations. Success on the job requires constant study of human nature, understanding its depth and limitations, and managing the many intangible traits, some good and some bad, that every individual possesses. The fundamentals of human nature never change, but attitudes do. The attitudes of employees today are far different from those with which supervisors dealt during the period of World War I. Better educated employees, the growth of collective bargaining, higher standards of living, changed and changing social conditions, have all contributed to these changes in attitudes. Yet underneath, human nature is fundamentally the same as ever.

The fundamental principles of supervision, like those underlying human nature, seldom change. Principles of learning laid down by René Descartes, the seventeenth century philosopher, remain sound and form a basis for instructing new men on present-day jobs. Philosophies of supervision, however, like attitudes, do change, and the social and industrial developments of the past few years have led to a tremendous change both in the attitudes of the men whose work the

supervisor directs, and in the methods of supervision. The day of the driving supervisor is past; the supervisor of today is a leader, a planner, and of necessity a student of the motives of men at work.

Therefore, one of the outstanding problems facing industry today is the development of supervisors who are human engineers. The mechanical problems met in the development of mass production have largely been conquered, or the principles underlying their solution have been well developed. Although problems growing out of the lack of manpower will become more acute with us, methods have been developed and are in use to meet them, but industry has not yet solved its problems of coordinating men and machines. In fact, we have been so busy learning to understand and harness machinery, developing elaborate rapid production lines, designing the tools and dies to equip these machines, training employees to handle the equipment, that management has frequently seemed to overlook the supervisor who is responsible for successfully controlling and guiding the men and machines into channels of maximum output. The concentration on mechanical problems has frequently led to neglect of man problems; yet it is the human relations and human engineering problems that cause the major difficulties and delays in achieving an industrial goal. Intricate as machines are, human beings are far more complicated. The mechanical problems are simple beside the human relations problems that must be met. It is time we put the same effort into handling the man problems that we have spent on mechanical problems.

Supervision is the function of directing, controlling, and coordinating the combined efforts of men, machines, and materials. Every supervisor, whether major executive, foreman, or chief clerk, is the individual management holds responsible for carrying out this function. When industry examines its human relations problems many of them can be traced back to the supervisor, a man or woman who directs the work of a group of people. Every industrial enterprise is made up of a number of these groups, each with its supervisor. The success of the organization depends on the group, and in turn, on the supervisor who directs and controls the individuals who make up this group.

The supervisor of today *must* be an engineer in human relations. His job primarily is one of managing people, directing, controlling, and guiding, leading, and inspiring them into productive channels. Like the mechanical engineer, the supervisor must have a working knowledge of the principles of supervision and constant training in their application to his problems. Every supervisor must have, as well, a

basic understanding of the machine and material phases of his department, or of such activities as may be involved. We can neither make a supervisor out of a man trained only on principles of human engineering nor expect good supervision from the man who is only a good mechanic. Successful supervision grows out of a foundation of mechanical knowledge and indoctrination with the fundamental principles of supervision. Most supervisors have the mechanical knowledge, but too many are lacking in the ability to apply the principles of leadership. There is no longer a place in industry for the old-fashioned hit-and-miss methods of supervision. Men trained in the old method must be retrained and brought up to date. Industry keeps its machinery up to date; it must bring its supervision up to date.

My good friend, Joseph Sadony, the psychologist, says many people instead of being taught "how to think" have too often had their minds preconditioned with "what to think." In other words, knowledge is used to bolster their prejudices. Primarily the job of training supervisors in the principles of human engineering is one of indoctrination, making them management-conscious, training them in the methods of formulating sound judgment, teaching them the fundamentals and principles inherent in good supervision, guiding them in the application of these principles to their own problems, and following up to see that they practice what they are taught. There is a saying "Teachers teach as they have been taught, not as they have been taught to teach." Applied to supervision it states management's problem clearly —"Supervisors frequently supervise as they have been supervised, not as they have been taught to supervise." Only through indoctrination can management see that its supervisors manage, direct, and control their personnel as they are taught to do it, rather than as they themselves have been supervised.

Much of the material in this book is based on the curriculum developed for supervisors and prospective supervisors in a large enterprise. It contains those basic fundamentals and principles essential to every supervisor in handling human relations problems. It is based on a sound method of first giving men principles, then applying those principles through controlled discussion to the solution of practical problems faced by the supervisor. Too often management has given its supervisors a course in the fundamentals of supervision, and the program has failed miserably because the fact was overlooked that these principles must be made a part of the supervisor's own personality. One supervisor may apply them differently from another. The principles followed must be the same, but the methods of using them will vary from supervisor to supervisor. These principles must

become an integral part of the supervisor's equipment so that they are the basis of his every action. Management must follow up such programs, constantly hammering home the sound principles underlying supervision, until they become second nature to every supervisor. Indoctrination of supervisors with the principles of sound supervision cannot be overemphasized. Only when this is done will management find its supervisors doing the job of directing and controlling groups successfully.

History may tell us in the future that industry turned the corner in the forties, moving from a mass production era into the era of human relations. If we are to progress as successfully in the human relations era as we have in the mass production era, it will be necessary for industry to concentrate on a program of indoctrinating its supervisors with the basic principles underlying sound supervision, to see that its supervisors make these principles a part of themselves, and to follow up its supervisors to see that they practice supervision as management in its policies wants its human relations handled.

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CHAPTER I

THE SUPERVISOR AND HIS ORGANIZATION

What is a supervisor? Any discussion of the supervisor and his organization must start with an answer to the question: "What is a supervisor?" A supervisor may be defined as any person who is responsible (1) for the conduct of others in the achievement of a particular task, (2) for the maintenance of quality standards, (3) for the protection and care of materials, and (4) for services to be rendered to those under his control. There is a distinction to be drawn between the supervisor and his men. Men are, generally, responsible for things; they are primarily responsible for materials and equipment. The supervisor is, for the most part, responsible for getting things done; the emphasis in his job is largely on the human factor. To those responsibilities of the men for materials and equipment, the supervisor adds the *responsibility for the men.* Therefore, it is obvious that the supervisor's responsibility is chiefly for the relationship between the men and their work. He is responsible for the smooth functioning of the men. The difference between the supervisor and his men is largely the difference between the responsibility for things and the responsibility for people. The supervisor's emphasis is on the human factor: managing manpower and guiding it in the necessary direction to get things done and to achieve the desired objectives with maximum efficiency and due regard for the interests of all concerned.

The supervisor must formulate judgments. In his work of managing men, the supervisor is constantly being called on to make decisions. Every executive finds that one of his greatest problems is to get men in supervisory positions to think through their problems and reach sound conclusions. In making sound decisions the supervisor must use judgment which is the application of reason to experience in solving problems, for it is only through the use of sound judgment that the supervisor can expect to make the right decisions. Mr. Alfred P. Sloan lists the following steps as essential in formulating sound judgments in the light of experience and reason: [1]

[1] Adapted from the material developed for the General Motors Executive Training Program by the General Motors Institute.

1. Get the facts.
2. Evaluate or weigh the facts. (Organize them so that they are understandable and usable.)
3. Decide.
4. Let the decision be final, unless later evidence conclusively demands a revision.

Here is a technique essential to every supervisor who expects to win and to hold the respect of his men by the well-considered decisions he makes. He must learn to get the facts and must be sure he gets them all. The supervisor must develop the skill of careful analysis and study of the facts. Consideration must be given to the objective —what the supervisor wants to accomplish. Finally, when the supervisor makes his decision based on the facts which he has carefully analyzed and has considered the end to be attained, his decision should be final. Men watch their supervisor closely for two things, snap decisions based on inadequate information, and instability, resulting in decisions made today and reversed tomorrow. Every supervisor should learn to apply this formula automatically to each problem as it arises in his daily work. The supervisor who always applies this method to every problem he meets is on the road to a successful career.

Three main tasks of the supervisor. The supervisor has three main tasks: to organize, to deputize, and to supervise. Every responsibility that the supervisor can possibly have may be classified under one of these three headings. *To organize* means planning the work of the department and of the men in an orderly manner with due regard for the responsible relationship of one person to another, so that there is a minimum of friction and a maximum of production. If the supervisor's department or group is small, there is little need for extensive organizing. *To deputize* means giving someone else the responsibility and authority to do something which the supervisor himself does not have the time or ability to do efficiently. The supervisor confers upon his subordinate the same authority and responsibility that he himself possesses—but with a more limited scope. In this task of the supervisor, it is important to remember that, even though someone else is deputized to do the task, the supervisor, in the last analysis, is responsible for getting it done. He must follow up, from time to time, to see that the person deputized is carrying out the work. Every supervisor must remember he can deputize the work to be done, but in the last analysis, he cannot deputize his responsibility for getting the work done. *To supervise* means that the supervisor follows up to see

that the work he has organized and deputized is carried out, that the plans that have been made are put into effect on time and in the proper manner. This task of the supervisor involves, to the highest degree, the proper handling of people and a sound understanding of human nature.

Some supervisors are weak in organizing; they are unable to see their work in its broader aspects and to break it down into its details. Other supervisors are weak in deputizing or delegating. They hate to yield any of their responsibilities to others to carry out for them; they want to keep all their responsibilities to themselves. Few supervisors realize that they must not spread themselves too thinly and that, frequently, they have subordinates who are better equipped than they themselves to do certain phases of their work. Good supervisors use their men to the best advantage. Again there is the supervisor who willingly gives others his responsibilities but never provides them with the necessary authority to get results. Delegation involves not only delegating responsibilities to others but also conferring the authority to carry out these responsibilities. Then there is the supervisor who delegates his responsibilities and authority according to a sound plan, but fails to follow up the men to whom he has delegated the responsibilities. No supervisor can say, "The responsibility is yours," and then forget it. The amount of follow-up will depend on the type of work and the individual deputized. Some supervisors fall down on the supervising end. They do not understand human nature and are unable to handle their men satisfactorily. To supervise effectively demands the highest degree of leadership. Supervising calls for the building of morale, the development of cooperation, the use of proper instructional methods, the ability to discipline men, and above all a sound knowledge of human nature.

Every supervisor should examine himself to determine how effectively he carries out the three tasks of organizing, deputizing, and supervising. Then the supervisor who is preparing for the future will concentrate on strengthening himself in the performance of any task wherein he finds himself weak.

What responsibilities can be delegated? It has been said that all the duties and responsibilities of a supervisor can be divided under the three main tasks discussed in the preceding paragraphs. Considering the second of these tasks, *deputizing* or *delegating*, these duties and responsibilities may be divided in another way, into three broad groups: (1) those which cannot as a rule be delegated, (2) those which can be shared in part with others, especially subordinates, (3) those which can be delegated to others, provided adequate authority

is also given to the subordinate. Some of the responsibilities under each of these headings follow;[2] others may be added, for this is not a complete list but merely one to start the supervisor thinking. Those responsibilities that generally cannot be delegated include: (1) placing the right man on the right job, (2) absence, tardiness, discipline, (3) safety, (4) department morale—a satisfied group of employees, (5) adjusting grievances, (6) improving manufacturing processes and working conditions, (7) control of departmental scheduling and planning (in some organizations this may be done in a central department), (8) seeing that proper tools, equipment, and materials are requisitioned, (9) cooperation with other supervisors and units on the same executive level, (10) settling disputes among the men, (11) seeing that the men are properly informed, (12) squelching or eliminating false rumors, (13) reporting conditions needing attention by superior operating officials, (14) seeing that an adequate work force is requisitioned and trained, (15) taking a friendly personal interest in the men, (16) carrying out basic management instructions, (17) maintaining proper contacts with other departments, (18) personal responsibility for delegation.

Those responsibilities which can be shared with others, especially subordinates, include: (1) accident prevention, (2) maintaining quantity of production, (3) maintaining quality of production, (4) keeping down departmental costs, (5) training employees, (6) encouraging cooperation and teamwork.

Those responsibilities which can be delegated to others, provided adequate authority is also given, include: (1) proper use and control of materials, (2) providing safe operating conditions, first aid, and reports of its use, (3) making certain reports and keeping the proper records on which the reports are based, (4) health and sanitation, (5) inspection and care of tools and equipment, (6) inspecting and checking raw materials, (7) keeping records of men's working time, (8) maintaining the premises in a clean, sanitary condition. One fact cannot be overemphasized: when a responsibility is delegated, the supervisor must also delegate the necessary authority to carry out the responsibility. A responsibility delegated without authority rarely reaches a successful conclusion.

When the supervisor considers these responsibilities and their delegation and when these responsibilities are discussed in a conference, he should study them not alone from his own personal viewpoint but should also recognize how proper delegation can help him become a

[2] Adapted from R. O. Beckman, *How to Train Supervisors*, Harper & Brothers, 1940, page 105.

better supervisor *within his organization.* No supervisor stands alone. With his men he is a part of an organization made up of many supervisors like himself and many men, each as a group under a supervisor. The successful supervisor constantly considers his responsibilities (1) in terms of those which he can delegate whenever possible and (2) the effect of his action on his own work, his men, and the rest of the organization.

What is an organization? Before the place of the supervisor in his organization can be considered, it is necessary to define the word "organization." For our purposes we shall use the definition of an organization as "the structural relationship between the various factors or functions necessary to achieve a given objective." There have been many definitions of this word. Another one frequently used is "the men in their various relationships to each other within an enterprise." Yet a third definition frequently met is "the economical relationships between the various factors of men, owners of capital, management, and government control." The first definition serves best because it covers the relationships between various departments and their supervisors, the functions that must be carried out by each department, and the policies and procedures, the techniques and methods available to the supervisor. When successful organizations are studied all are found to have certain common characteristics. The development of an effective industrial organization requires proper observance and application of a series of "fundamentals of organization."

The fundamentals of organization. The primary fundamentals of organization are fourfold: (1) regard for the aim of the enterprise, (2) the establishment of definite lines of supervision, (3) the placing of fixed responsibility, (4) regard for the personal equation.[3]

Regard for the aim of the enterprise. Regard for the aim of the enterprise is the first of the primary fundamentals. It is most important when the first steps are taken in the building or development of the structure which is to be termed the organization of the enterprise. In no two businesses are the purposes of the management or the conditions of operation entirely alike. It will be easiest to consider this fundamental of organization by considering businesses of diverse natures, wherein it can be seen that the organization structure must necessarily be different in order to meet the several conditions involved. Let us consider the organization which is necessary to take

[3] See Richard Lansburgh and Wm. R. Spriegel, *Industrial Management,* John Wiley & Sons, New York, 1940, page 62.

care of the unusual occurrence wherein speed of attainment and not cost is the dominating factor such as clearing a railroad right-of-way after a wreck. All thought of cost is thrown aside and an organization is constructed which, by main force, will have but one end in view, namely, clearing the tracks to permit trains to pass at the earliest possible moment. Compare this to the organization necessary for the operation of a huge manufacturing plant which is to remain in existence for many years, all of whose activities, not only numerous but also varied, must be carried on with due relation to each other. It will be seen readily that the organization structure required for the railroad wreck will be far more simple, far more direct, than the structure which is required to carry on the work of the great manufacturing establishment.

Length of life of the organization and desired speed of results are important factors in the development of its structure. Thus, the organization necessary to construct a number of reviewing stands for a large parade, which will be put up quickly and taken down promptly, may be far simpler than the intricate organization of a construction enterprise which involves the putting up of a huge office building or hotel. As the purpose for which, or the condition under which, the enterprise operates changes, the organization must change likewise. In determining the aim of an organization, major plant policies must be carefully thought through.

The establishment of definite lines of supervision. The second of the primary fundamentals of organization, namely, the establishment of definite lines of supervision, lays down the lines of control which are exercised over the personnel of the enterprise. These lines of supervision may be looked upon as lines of authority, as paths along which orders flow. They are also the paths along which information necessary to the execution of particular tasks is communicated. It must be kept in mind that this path of communication is a two-way path; not only must instructions flow down but reports must also come back along the same lines. Care must be exercised not to check the free flow in both directions.

In laying down the lines of supervision, the organizing executive has two main problems at hand. First, he must determine the type of organization to be used. The particular types of organization structure will be described in the third chapter. Second, he must carefully develop and mold the outlines of the type as they can be best applied to his particular business enterprise. In developing his definite lines of supervision he will have to give careful attention to the fourth primary fundamental, regard for the personal equation.

The organizing executive will pay especial attention to developing definite and clearly understood lines of authority in order to avoid the overlapping of responsibilities or duties. It is equally important to be sure that no gaps exist which are not covered by the lines of authority. When either gaps or overlaps exist, the result will be confusion and trouble between supervisors and even between whole departments.

Definiteness of control through the establishment of lines of supervision implies the idea of *tapering authority*. It implies the development of a group of supervisors along this line of supervision, each one down the line having somewhat less authority in scope, and somewhat more direction of detail. The job boss, although he has control over a small piece of the business undertaking, is not charged with error if the undertaking has been wrongly conceived and has proved to be generally unprofitable.

A substitute for each supervisor within the organization is essential. This substitute must be available to act during the illness or enforced absence of the supervisor, and must be capable of taking over his work in case of death or change of duties of his superior. If, however, a plan providing substitutes for supervisors is being developed, it is essential that all members of the organization have complete confidence in the purpose of the plan. If they get the impression that the plan is merely a club to be held over their heads and to provide an easy way to remove them, if they are not successful, the plan will fail. Members of an organization can be shown the legitimate purposes of the plan which are: (1) a supervisor must be always on duty; (2) opportunity is offered for advancement, either as supervisors leave or as the business grows.

In small businesses the desire to have a substitute for each supervisor sometimes has led to a surplus of supervisors. It is never profitable to carry this idea to the point where additional supervisors must be put on the payroll. This consideration is often a real one as, particularly in small businesses, there is often a great difference between the caliber of the department supervisor and that of others in the department.

The placing of fixed responsibility. The third fundamental of organization is the placing of fixed responsibility. To place fixed responsibility accurately eliminates vertical gaps or overlaps of responsibility along the lines of supervision which have been laid down. The more responsibility that can be definitely given to subordinate supervisors, the easier it will be to develop substitutes for each supervisor. As more responsibility for cooperation with other members of

the organization is made definitely a portion of the responsibility assigned to the individual member of an organization, it becomes easier to coordinate operation of the various phases in the business.

There are three main results which are achieved through accurately placing responsibility, namely, (1) fixed responsibility acts as an incentive to a subordinate, this is particularly true in large organizations, (2) fixed responsibility aids in the general speed-up of work, it immediately becomes possible to know to whom communications should be addressed or which supervisors should be called into conference on any particular topic, (3) the accurate placing of responsibility assists in developing discipline as a means of control.

Regard for the personal equation. By regard for the personal equation is meant consideration of the abilities and limitations of men and women employed in the enterprise. In developing lines of supervision and in fixing responsibility, it is not possible to consider only the factors of the business which would ordinarily demand the making of decisions of a certain character. It is necessary to take into account the personnel which is available or which can be made available. Arranging an organization should be looked upon more as a game like chess and less as a game like checkers. Frequently men have been moved across the industrial board as if all were of equal value, as if one could readily replace another, as if one could always fit into an organization niche when another has gone, merely because he has performed approximately the same duties. Men are of different value and work together in different ways. More frequently it is necessary to consider the man who is available and then draw the outlines of the job to fit his capabilities.

Merely assigning duties to men does not lead to the accomplishment of tasks, and therefore it is not always possible to draw organization charts and find men to fit them. Some enterprises with branch establishments have organized each branch in precisely the same way, with all branches having identical organization charts. It is an outstanding fact that in some branches of such organizations it will be found that everything is working smoothly, that everyone cooperates with everyone else, while in other branches jealousies have arisen, dodging responsibilities is prevalent, and the organization seems to be generally ineffective. The main consideration is that although the organization has been outlined, the lines of supervision have been drawn and the responsibilities have been fixed; the personal equation, the abilities and limitations of the men and women, has not been taken into account.

It will not be possible to enumerate all the factors which must be

considered in giving proper regard to the personal equation as a factor in organization. There are several such factors to which attention can be directed deservedly. In the first place, proper consideration must be given at times to thoughts of home and outside worries. It is well enough to say that men or women should leave their social affairs and problems outside when they come to work but, unfortunately, human nature frequently does not permit this. Secondly, the habits and inertia of the personnel of an organization must be considered. For just this reason it is easier to construct new organizations than to reconstruct old organizations. The "efficiency man," who developed so much trouble for himself, frequently did so because he refused to consider habits and inertia of personnel as a reason to warp lines of supervision to meet conditions as he found them.

The supervisor and organizational fundamentals. The supervisor meets and works with these organizational fundamentals every day. Every action of the supervisor, if properly taken, is in line with due regard for the aims of the enterprise. Without definite lines of supervision, no organization can long exist. Even within his department, as the supervisor organizes and delegates the work of his department, he must establish definite lines of supervision if the work is to be done successfully. It is likewise fundamental, whether in the large organization or within a department, that a man cannot do a job well unless he has been assigned fixed responsibility and authority to do the work. Every supervisor as a matter of basic philosophy and attitude should have due regard for the personal integrity and rights of others. Without this he cannot build the cooperation and morale essential to successful operation of his department.

Every supervisor should be familiar with the aims or objectives of the organization for which he works. Furthermore, he should be sold on them and enthusiastic to the extent that he can sell these objectives to the men under him. Knowledge is essential to the supervisor. One of the pillars on which his knowledge of successful supervisory methods is built is cognizance of the aims of his enterprise. The supervisor constantly has to explain company policies to his men and successful explanation is based in part on a knowledge of the aims of the enterprise.

The supervisor should understand the why and wherefore of the establishment of definite lines of supervision. For him definite lines of supervision have already been established. He should understand his position, his responsibilities, and his relations to other supervisors and their departments. This does not merely mean that the supervisor need know only what his responsibilities are; the successful

supervisor will also understand the reasoning that lies behind the assignment of responsibilities to him and to others and will scrupulously follow the lines of supervision in all his dealings with others. This demands a knowledge of the fundamental principles of organization and management and how they are applied in the organization of which he is a part. He must recognize that channels of supervision make for successful operation of the organization. The successful supervisor follows the same principles in setting up and operating his department as the management does in setting up and operating the entire organization. In every sense of the word, the supervisor in his department is operating a *little organization.*

Many a supervisor falls down in his work because he fails to recognize the third of these primary fundamentals. Too many supervisors will not release and delegate their responsibilities and authority; and, when they do, they fail to fix the responsibility definitely with detailed instructions and explanations. They also fail to accompany the delegated responsibility with the needed authority. Unless a man knows exactly what his duties are and how his work is tied with that of other departments, he cannot perform his duties successfully and to his fullest capacity. Test this statement on yourself as a supervisor. When you are given an assignment, don't you want full and fixed responsibility and authority for doing the job? Then when you assign a job to another, give him what you expect. Every supervisor hopes for advancement; he expects eventually to move up into his superior's position or to move to another company in a higher capacity. However, many a supervisor who has merited advancement has failed to receive it because there was no one to replace him. The wise supervisor, as part of his preparation for advancement, will train a substitute to fill his place when he moves up. Only the supervisor who is afraid of his own position and doubts his own ability and capacity will hesitate to train a substitute.

There are many supervisors who fail to advance for another reason —lack of regard for the personal equation. These supervisors do not realize that to a large degree the men make the supervisor, that the supervisor's success depends to a great extent on his men. More and more the supervisor, provided with staff specialists, is becoming a manager of men, a specialist himself in handling men, in dealing with and guiding human nature. Much of this book will be devoted to methods and techniques of learning how to understand and handle men more effectively. The successful supervisor today must be a practical industrial psychologist, versed in guiding, developing, and controlling the actions of men. But his skill in his specialized field

must be built on a sound foundation of knowledge—knowledge of his own organization, its objectives and pattern, its policies and methods; knowledge of his tasks of organizing, deputizing, and supervising; knowledge of his duties and responsibilities and their delegation. Then with this foundation he must understand and apply the basic principles and techniques that have been tried and found successful in managing manpower.

CHAPTER II

ESSENTIALS OF ORGANIZATION

The supervisor and a knowledge of organization. Every supervisor is a part of an organization and, therefore, to carry out his responsibilities fully, especially where his department affects or works with other departments, he must understand the pattern of the entire organization and the principles and policies on which it is founded. Every supervisor in his department operates an organization of his own which within certain limits he can set up to produce at its maximum efficiency. Only with a knowledge of organization fundamentals and principles can he so organize his department. The supervisor may both serve on committees and use committees to advise him in his department. He can better participate in committee work and use his own committees most effectively if he understands the uses and limitations of this organization device. Every supervisor hopes to advance into a better position. A knowledge of organization fundamentals and principles is beginning to play an increasingly important part in the selection of executives today because as an enterprise grows and expands its organizational problems intensify and the supervisor who has the knowledge and ability to meet and solve these problems is being frequently selected to fill the higher position. Therefore, the forward-seeing supervisor will prepare himself by studying these organization fundamentals and principles and by analyzing them in terms of his own organization.

The supervisor and essentials of organization. Every supervisor who expects to advance into a position of greater responsibility must equip himself with a basic knowledge of the essentials of organization. In these times when new industries are arising, new plants are being opened up, new departments and divisions are being added to old plants, a knowledge of the application of fundamental organization principles is essential to the supervisor who is preparing himself to move into a better position. Only through his knowledge of the essentials of organization can the supervisor (1) appreciate the basic requirements of a successful organization, (2) see his place in the organization as well as the organization as a whole, (3) develop an awareness that the same principles are applicable to departmental

organization, but on a smaller scale, that are applicable to the larger organization. This chapter therefore is devoted to the essentials of organization knowledge of which the supervisor needs to carry out his responsibilities more effectively and to equip him to advance to higher positions in the organization. In these few pages, it is possible only to touch very lightly on a subject about which entire books have been written.

One of the primary steps in management development in any enterprise is proper organization. After the business has been conceived and the broad policies which are to be pursued have been established, and before any operating methods may be devised, at least a skeleton organization must have been developed. Any business which is well organized has gained an excellent start toward effective operation. Proper organization simplifies management in ways which are impossible in a business that is not well organized. Much of the criticism which has been leveled at certain methods of management in particular enterprises should rather be leveled at the faulty organization pattern of the enterprise. In a profitable business in which the organization is good, if forward-looking steps in management are tried, they will usually succeed with little difficulty. The organization which is well constructed is characterized by the smooth flow of detail throughout the executive branch and by chief executives whose minds are able to think constructively.

In the preceding chapter the term organization was defined as being *the structural relationship existing between the various factors in an enterprise.* It is the structure within which the various factors operate to achieve the major and minor objectives of the institution. Sometimes the term organization is used to refer to the personnel functioning within a given structural setup or to the functioning unit as a whole. These two uses, however, seldom cause any great confusion since the content of the sentence usually conveys the specialized meaning. We also use the modifiers factory, sales, etc., to designate special phases of organization.

Basic considerations in organization. Before discussing specific fundamentals of good organization or the development of particular types of organization, it will be well to review some broad organization considerations. The purpose of building up an organization is to facilitate the daily routine and effective operation of a business or department with a minimum of direction from above. Organization carries out its purpose by determining the scope and limits of each individual or group of individuals in a business undertaking, together with their relationships and contacts with each other. By a consider-

ation of fundamentals and types of organization, an executive builds up a structure for his business and the supervisor for his department which is peculiarly suited to its needs.

Organizations must be developed primarily with regard to peculiar conditions within the business. The application of the fundamentals of organization will differ widely in two different businesses. The size of a business, particularly, has an effect on the way in which the organization develops. On the whole, in the small business it is possible to develop essentially the same type of organization that may be developed in the large business except that the duties of several people in the large business will in the small one necessarily have to be combined.

The type of business will affect greatly the development of the organization. Thus it will be found that steel plants, textile mills, paper mills, or refining plants, although they have the same fundamentals to deal with, will obviously apply them in different ways. In a manufacturing business, if the product is standardized, the organization usually will need to be constructed differently than if the product is diversified. The same amount of business may be handled with fewer chief executives if the product is standardized because it is easier to delegate authority in such businesses. Even the location of a plant or the departments within a plant may affect the precise way in which the organization is constructed. The effect of location on the personnel may demand this.

To build up an effective industrial organization requires proper observance and application of a series of "fundamentals of organization." These fall into two main groups: primary fundamentals and operating fundamentals. Primary fundamentals were discussed in the preceding chapter which should be re-read at this point as it is essential that the supervisor know and understand the use of these primary fundamentals.[1] The primary fundamentals must be considered by the executive when he builds the scheme of organization and before he gives any considerable attention to the operating fundamentals. The operating fundamentals may be said to be executive in character. They put into effect the concepts that were worked out in the primary fundamentals. They aid in the application of these primary fundamentals to the business. The primary fundamentals of business organization may be thought of as dealing with those phases of management which include policy and organization build-

[1] See Chapter I, page 5.

ing. The operating fundamentals may be thought of as dealing almost entirely with the operating phases of management.

Operating fundamentals of organization. The operating fundamentals of organization are: (1) the development of an adequate system, (2) the establishment of adequate records, (3) the laying down of proper operating rules and regulations, (4) the exercise of effective leadership. These fundamentals, following chronologically the primary fundamentals in their application, put lifeblood into the framework made possible by the primary fundamentals.[2]

The development of an adequate system. Considerable confusion frequently develops in the minds of many who speak of organization matters, since they speak of some of these operating fundamentals which are so easily observed as if they themselves wholly comprised organization. This is particularly true of system. The operating fundamentals are concrete in nature as compared with the more abstract primary fundamentals and, being easily seen by the casual observer, are easily misunderstood for organization itself.

System is a part of organization, not the whole of it. As an operating fundamental, system helps to bind the whole mechanism of organization together. System is the existence of order and method in all parts of an undertaking. It relieves the supervisor of some of the details of execution and is a bulwark that prevents the lines of authority which have been laid down from being overstepped. It brings work to the supervisor with the preliminary steps completed and ready for his attention, thus enabling him to apply his entire time to matters of maximum responsibility. When all factors in a business are moving in a regular and accustomed routine, the waste of time and effort involved in repeating the preliminary steps toward the solution of any problem is avoided. It is the function of system to provide for this routine, to provide in advance for all detail work, preliminary or consequent.

Although system implies order in work, it does not necessarily imply economy. A procedure may be highly systematic, but still very wasteful. This has caused many highly developed systems rightfully to fall into disrepute but should not cause any attempt to eliminate properly worked out systems.

The "exception principle"—a development of system. System supplies the motive power for what has been termed the "exception principle" in management. When operating under this principle, the head of an enterprise, of a department, or even of only a few men does not

[2] See *Industrial Management,* Lansburgh and Spriegel, John Wiley & Sons, New York, 1940, page 62 ff.

attempt to act personally on each case coming under his general jurisdiction, but acts only on the exceptional matters. Frequently recurring matters are made a matter of routine, a system of checks and balances having been developed in accordance with responsibilities already fixed, so that these matters may be handled entirely without reference to the executive or supervisor himself. The exception principle demands that the supervisor receive reports of all portions of the enterprise under his control.

By the operation of the exception principle, all routine matters may be handled by the supervisor in a few minutes, and thus he is enabled to devote his entire time to the more important matters which should by right demand his personal attention. He may give more detailed consideration to the peculiar cases which do not fall under the routine. In devoting his attention to these cases, he is enabled to work over them to such an extent that he frequently can correlate them and develop the points of similarity and difference in them, until they, too, are classified and no longer may be termed exceptional, but are routine. He is also more free to consider the broader line of policy of the division of the business under his control. It will be found generally that the operation of the exception principle, through system, gives fuller opportunity for the development of the other fundamentals of organization such as fixed responsibility. The supervisor is able to learn more of the capacities and interests of the various members of his department and is thus enabled better to distribute responsibility among them.[3]

Reports as an aid in developing system. A report in part discharges the responsibility of a subordinate to his chief. It is the completion of a task, the end of an assignment of work to be done. Just as an order should communicate all information necessary for its execution, so a report should communicate all information essential to appraisal of performance.

The prime requisite of a report is that it shall serve some really useful purpose. Some men require the submission of reports which are of slight, if any, practical value. If reports are to be an aid to the operation of the exception principle, this situation must be avoided. Otherwise a condition will soon arise in which the reports will not be read and will not serve as the basis for action.

The submission of reports is one of the most important functions of the young man who is just entering the field of management, and

[3] See Scott, Clothier, Mathewson and Spriegel, *Personnel Management*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1941, Chapter II, for a detailed discussion of the *capacities, interests,* and *opportunities* of employees.

who secures a minor supervisory position. The ability of such a man properly to present the subject at hand for the consideration of his chief is one of the most unfailing ways to secure his superior's approval. The reason for this is easy to discover. The ability to prepare a concise report, which goes directly to the point at issue, covers all the necessary facts, and at the same time does not waste space in the inclusion of non-essential details, is the best possible evidence that the young supervisor has an understanding of his work, has completely thought through and analyzed the situations that have confronted him, and that, in short, he has successfully mastered his job and is the type of person to whom more responsibilities may be given.

Reports should always be concise, give the general facts and general conclusions, if any, in the first few paragraphs, and then should follow these with such elaboration and data as are necessary in the particular case at hand. In a more comprehensive report, such as an economic survey, it is advisable to include a summary and conclusion as the first chapter of the report but it should include the important conclusions. All information that permits comparative treatment should be so handled that the reader may see trends without having to look up prior reports or other older information. This may be accomplished by the use of graphs or comparable statistical data. Every supervisor should develop the ability to write a good report. It is an invaluable asset to the supervisor and one way he has of bringing himself to the attention of the management.

The establishment of adequate records. Records, although differing from system, frequently inject into system the lifeblood which allows it to survive. System without records does not usually prove successful. Records are even more tangible than system. They are definite, and therefore their provision, maintenance, and improvement are simpler than for the system. Records give the facts concerning the operation of the enterprise. Their preparation and use make possible the elimination of most of the guesswork from the management. They are an operating fundamental of organization because they are used after the primary fundamentals have been established, and by the organization that has been built up in accordance with the concepts of its primary fundamentals.

The provision of just the right type of records in just sufficient quantity is one of the clearest indications of good organization. Too few records are costly; too many records possibly even more costly. Once the necessity of records is realized by those in charge of the enterprise, the immediate danger is the development of "red tape." "Red tape" is of three general kinds: first, too many records, includ-

ing some unnecessary ones and duplicate ones made up by different departments; second, too many forms to secure essential information which might be secured by a smaller number by combining several; third, the unnecessary refinement of information.

As previously stated, there should be as few separate forms as possible. A multiplicity of forms results in their frequent loss and consequent absence of information that is needed because one of many forms relating to a particular problem is not at hand. Forms should be of standard size wherever possible in order that their handling, as well as their filing, may be expedited. They should be constructed so they are read easily, with the most important information standing out most clearly when the form is filled in. An integral part of "adequate records" is to file them so that they may be secured when needed.

One maxim with reference to records, as well as other devices of management, is that they are valuable only to the point where the cost of their collection is less than the savings which their collection will effect. Many interesting data can be collected at large cost. If the supervisor is of the type who likes to know the detail of operations from every possible angle, it is not difficult for him to secure the information. It is likewise not difficult for him to increase the overhead cost by such a procedure to a proportion not justified by the returns from the data collected.

One type of records which usually justify their cost of collection, however large, if their value be determined in broad rather than in narrow terms, is cost records. Proper cost analysis gives invaluable data on conditions demanding attention, and on the operation of the organization such as for the results achieved through previously placed responsibility. The larger and more complex the organization, the greater is the need for securing accurate costs.

Cost records. Under today's modern highly competitive conditions the successful organization must have a highly developed system of records to control the operation of the enterprise. Cost records are essential and have long been so recognized but other records are equally necessary. Governmental agencies require detailed and frequently voluminous reports. Planning requires records. The supervisor must recognize the need of records and learn to use them effectively in the planning and the management of the work in his department. Records may also be invaluable to the supervisor in handling his men, in his work of rating, transfer, promotion, and dismissal.

It is essential that most records of whatever nature be summarized

so as to indicate trends. Records, like reports, which do not give comparative information frequently are valueless. Certain it is that records that include comparative information are far more valuable than those that do not.

It is a great help to the supervisor to consult his records from time to time to see how his department compares with other departments. By doing this it enables him to find out just why certain problems are turning up. The supervisor must control his records, however, and not let them control him. He cannot supervise his department efficiently if he spends the majority of his time at his desk keeping records, although there are some which he must keep himself, especially those from which he rates his men and makes decisions on promotion, transfer, and dismissal.

The laying down of proper operating rules and regulations. The third of the operating fundamentals of organization, *rules* and *regulations,* is the tie that binds all the other fundamentals. It defines the scope of the application of system to the various segments of the lines of authority which have been built up. It provides methods for the utilization of the records and in innumerable other ways it functions to knit the organization together into a unified whole. The establishment of exact rules, either verbal or written, permits authority actually to be delegated, and system actually to work, because *the supervisor and the subordinate both have a definite concept of their respective duties and responsibilities.* One of the ideals of good organization, namely, *the handling of routine without direction from above,* is thus provided for by the supervisor's handling a matter only once, then laying down a rule for its future handling, thus making it a part of routine. Written rules and regulations may be general in character, touching only the broad outlines of business policy, or they may be more detailed in character, taking the form of a "standing order," which may provide the exact method of performance of nearly every task in the business. In developing rules and regulations, care must be taken to insure that they are changed as conditions change and that they are not so detailed as entirely to eliminate individual initiative and the good effects thereof.

Rules and regulations include proper instruction of the personnel in all the features of the business. Unless written rules are verbally and intelligently interpreted at the time of their promulgation, and the spirit behind them is clearly defined, it is likely that too often they will be observed to the letter when judgment should be used. Here the supervisor's responsibility develops for proper interpretation of

rules and regulations and the need for exercise of judgment by the supervisor arises.

The exercise of effective leadership. The last of the fundamentals of organization is in many ways the most important and is certainly the most intangible and the most difficult to develop. The exercise of effective leadership provides the lubrication which makes possible the functioning of the organization as a whole. The more nearly perfect the organization is developed, in other words, the more intricate the machinery, the more necessary is intelligent executive direction or leadership.

The executive in an organization has three main tasks to perform: organizing, deputizing, and supervising. His organization task, although equally important with the other two, is not the one that consumes most of his working hours. The task of supervision or leadership takes most of his time and consists, in the main, of making decisions and handling the exceptional cases as they arise in a way that will promote the smooth operation of the organization. In carrying on this work a capable executive will at the same time provide inspirational leadership for his subordinates. The supervisor's success in organizing and supervising is largely dependent on his ability to deputize. Too many men insist on retaining all the authority and responsibility vested in them and as a result devote much of their time to details and desk work. The task of supervising demands that much of the supervisor's time be spent with his men. This is only possible if he is willing to select and train men to assume some of his responsibilities. Deputizing demands that the supervisor share his responsibilities with men capable of meeting these responsibilities. When the supervisor deputizes a subordinate to do this, however, it is necessary that he also equip the subordinate with the necessary authority to carry out the responsibility.

There often is found in the early development of an organization a type of individual somewhat different from the ideal leader who may be termed the "strong man," who is frequently very valuable to an organization, at least temporarily. The strong man is a man at or near the top who brushes aside the carefully developed lines of supervision or responsibilities which have been fixed and, through his own dynamic guidance, operates the organization or a large part of it. Such men are dangerous in long-enduring organizations because ordinarily, if they pass on, substitutes for them cannot be found. However, in new businesses when policies are being determined, such an autocratic head is often far superior for purposes of getting an organization going to a group of individuals without his driving power, even

though they may work along theoretically correct lines of authority and responsibility. The combination of strong driving force from the top and well-developed fundamentals of organization through the ranks is one of the best, if not the best, means of effective leadership that can be developed. The supervisor should beware of developing too much of the "strong man" element in his leadership of his men. His job demands a judicious combination of driving and leadership.

Effective leadership implies the prior development of the primary fundamentals of organization. Without these, executive control involves one-man supervision of most of the details of a business with all the attendant difficulties and dangers.

Poor leadership is easily observed and comes to light in the supervisor who is unable to dispose of the papers which come to him for decision, in the man who makes snap judgments, in the man who shows his ignorance of the relationships of the various phases of the business to his own, or in the man who treads solely the path of custom. Every supervisor can apply these tests to his own work to determine the quality of his leadership. The purpose of an executive's presence is to bring together two links in the chain of organization, which, for some reason, have come apart, or to cause two gears in the organization which are clashing to run smoothly.

What does the successful organization have? Because the supervisor is interested in operating a successful department and since any department headed by a supervisor is by comparison a small organization, it will be revealing to analyze the characteristics of a successful enterprise. The basic factors or characteristics of an organization which are essential if it is to function efficiently are (1) strong resourceful leadership, (2) clearly defined responsibilities, (3) a carefully selected, trained, and placed working force, (4) standardized methods, (5) adequate cost and other records, and (6) cooperation.[4]

Strong, resourceful leadership. Every successful organization must have strong, resourceful leadership. To have this leadership an individual or a group must have vision, resourcefulness, and power. This leadership is equally essential at the top of the organization and, within the organization, at the head of each department. The supervisor as the leader of his department should recognize that resourcefulness and strength are equally important. He must possess the ability to recognize problems and meet them with sound solutions, taking decisive action to put the solution into effect. As a leader the

[4] The authors are indebted to material developed by the General Motors Institute of Technology for this list of characteristics.

supervisor must develop foresight to anticipate the situation and plan in advance to meet it. As a leader the supervisor must know the men and their capacities, his department and its operating problems. He must possess confidence in his own ability, tact and self-control to win the confidence of his men, the ability to develop them into a hard-hitting, well-coordinated unit to meet the demands of the organization in his department. Leadership is essential in the largest organization and the smallest department if they are to be successful.

Clearly defined responsibilities. In several places thus far it has been pointed out that clearly defined responsibilities are essential to the organization as a whole and to the supervisor in his department. Every supervisor wants to know exactly for what and to whom he is responsible. Many supervisors have been in positions where clearly defined responsibilities did not exist, where everybody was responsible or no one took the responsibility. The results are either conflicting decisions and orders or a delay in or lack of decisions and orders. In either case the results were confusing and delays were frequent. Every organization and every department, every top executive and every department supervisor should know what his responsibilities are and to whom he is responsible. Authority commensurate with responsibility should be delegated to executives and supervisors at each supervisory level.

Carefully selected, trained, and placed working force. A successful organization should have an efficient industrial relations department acting in a staff capacity to select and assist in training and placing employees. In the last analysis the supervisor still has the responsibilities of training the employee and seeing that the right man is assigned to the right job. The industrial relations department through selection devices such as interviews, tests, and verification of past employment can only assist the supervisor to get the right man; it can only instruct the supervisor in the correct methods of training the man; but it is up to the supervisor actually to instruct the employee in the correct methods of job performance. Many a man is placed on a job for which he is not suited either by experience or temperament. If the employee cannot readily adapt himself to the new work, it is the supervisor's responsibility to take such action as is indicated by the facts of the situation. Frequently only a transfer to another job is required. Sometimes it is necessary to discharge the employee. If the supervisor knows his organization and understands the principles of the line and staff type of organization he will recognize his responsibilities and at the same time avail himself of all the staff services of the industrial relations department. No organization

is stronger than its weakest link. Likewise this is true of the supervisor's department. The strength of the department and organization in terms of manpower is based on successfully selecting, training, and placing employees. Many men are selected to fill positions for which they have no special training or aptitude. The successful supervisor takes such men and through training or transfers makes them efficient producers on their job. However, this requires careful selection of the man by the personnel department and then proper placement and instruction of the individual by the supervisor. These three operations, selection, training, and placement, result in a satisfied, cooperative, productive employee.

Standardized methods. Every organization and every department in the organization, even almost every employee in each department, has certain methods that have been worked out and are followed time after time in the same manner. Every supervisor should understand clearly the meaning of the word "standard." "Standard" under modern management means a carefully thought out method of performing a task or carefully drawn specifications covering some phase of the business. Standardization does not imply perfection. The supervisor should constantly be on the lookout for ways and means of improving standardized methods . Standardized methods should be reduced to writing and should be clearly understood. They should be followed until they are improved. Their use takes routine and detail off the shoulders of the supervisor, providing for application of the "exception principle." Standardized methods are essential to advanced planning. The organization and department operating under standardized methods performs its work smoothly and successfully. The necessity for adequate cost and other records has been discussed previously in this chapter and the wide-awake supervisor is "records conscious" and uses them to their greatest advantage.

Cooperation. Only through cooperation does an organization function smoothly. Cooperation within the organization accomplishes the following ends: (1) develops teamwork, (2) encourages suggestions, (3) improves morale, (4) facilitates production, (5) eliminates waste. Cooperation on the part of the supervisor means the willingness to help out the next fellow whether he is one of his men, a fellow supervisor, or his superior. A friendly relationship between the supervisor and others is an essential to cooperation as is the confidence of others in your ability and willingness to aid them. Cooperation cannot be one-sided; the supervisor cannot expect cooperation unless he gives it.[5]

[5] For a detailed discussion of cooperation see "Promoting Cooperation Between Men and Between Departments," Chapter XIV, page 146.

The supervisor and the essentials of organization. The foregoing fundamentals and principles apply equally well in their smaller aspects to the supervisor's department. They are not just principles essential to organizing the enterprise; every supervisor should understand and use them in his work of maintaining and supervising his department. The supervisor should analyze his department to determine if these principles and fundamentals are applied there. He must examine his own leadership, the records he maintains, and how he uses those records. He must test the degree of cooperation in his department, his willingness to cooperate with others as well as his men's willingness to cooperate with him. Are the responsibilities of his men clearly assigned, and has he delegated the necessary authority to carry out these assignments? Are methods standardized? How effectively are his men selected, trained, and placed? All these are questions the supervisor can use to examine his success in applying the essentials of organization in his own department.

CHAPTER III

TYPES OF ORGANIZATIONS

Types of organizations. The same fundamentals of organization discussed in the previous chapter can be applied in different ways. These differences in application have brought about the development of several distinct types of industrial organization: (1) line or military, (2) functional, (3) line-and-staff, (4) committee, and (5) multiple management. Historically, the line type of organization, which was the first form to develop, was patterned after military and church types of organization since these existed long before industrial organizations came into existence. In the line or military form of organization, the line of authority flows directly from the chief executive to various sub-executives in charge of particular phases of the business and from them to the men. Figure 1 illustrates the line type of organization in its simplest phase with authority and responsibility flowing directly from the president to the sales manager, works manager, and treasurer and from them to their men.

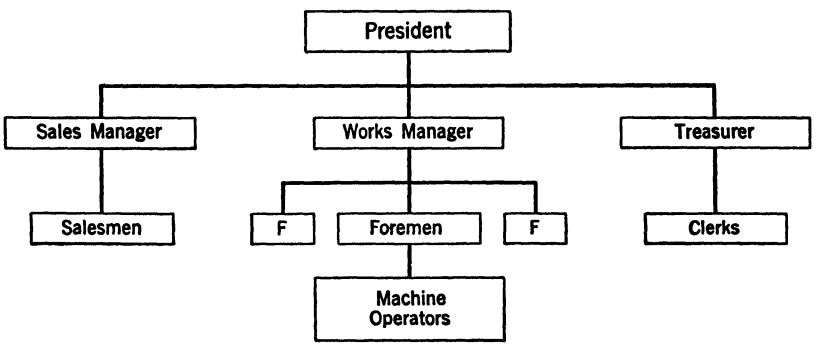


FIGURE 1.

Advantages and disadvantages of the line type of organization. Every supervisor who has worked in small enterprises has had the experience of working under the line type of organization and has met both its advantages and disadvantages. It is a simple organization form and all the functions of the organization are lumped under those departments arbitrarily selected. Each department is in a sense

well balanced as it will do its own hiring, purchasing, record keeping. Thus under the line type of organization well-rounded executives are developed. Decisions are easy to get, there is no doubt about who is responsible. There is a singleness of purpose, and responsibility is easily fixed. Each division is under the direction of one person who is held completely responsible for his department. Discipline is easy to maintain for the authority of the head of the enterprise is complete.

Supervisors who have worked under this type of organization, however, will recall the disadvantages which they had to face. There is no specialized personnel available to meet the difficult technical problems which arise as the enterprise expands. The works manager cannot be expected to handle employment, purchasing, and engineering in addition to production on which his chief interest must be centered. Too great a responsibility is placed on the department head and too much is expected of him. The line organization is obviously at a disadvantage since it concentrates control in several key men and frequently is not prepared to replace any one of them if he is lost to the organization by resignation, by illness over a long period, or by death. Effective coordination between departments is unlikely under this form of organization. A major difficulty is encountered in determining the division of work which will form the major units of the enterprise. As the organization expands and develops the deficiencies of the line type of organization become more obvious since line organization does not provide for balanced growth and development in an enterprise.

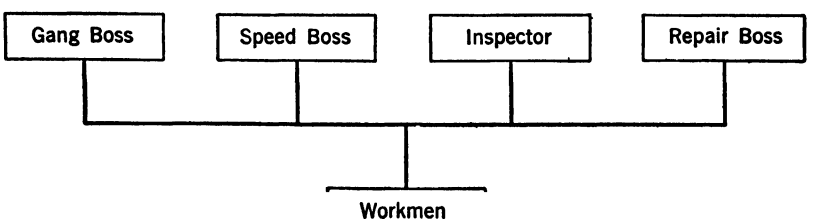


FIGURE 2.

The functional type of organization. The functional type of organization (illustrated in Figure 2) resulted from the realization that the responsibilities of the general foreman in the line or military type of organization were greater than could be adequately borne by the men available. Under the functional type the solution was found in the functional division of these responsibilities among different foremen who were specially qualified. This type of organization was

first developed and put into practice by Frederick W. Taylor who employed, to replace the general foreman, eight functionalized foremen—four removed from the shop to the office to plan work: (1) the route clerk, (2) instruction card clerk, (3) time and cost clerk, (4) shop disciplinarian; four in the shop to help the men personally in their work, each foreman restricting himself to help only in his particular function: (1) gang boss, (2) speed boss, (3) inspection boss, (4) repair boss. It is obvious that this plan of organization resulted in confusion among the men in the shop, but out of it grew the staff principle and the merging of the line and the functional types into the line-and-staff type of organization.

Advantages and disadvantages of the functional type. This type of organization has not been widely used but it is interesting to analyze it because of the influence it has had on the development of the modern industrial organization under which most supervisors work today. This type recognizes the principle of specialization as applied to the work of the supervisor and to management as well. It does away with one-man control, dividing responsibility and authority and facilitating the development and maintenance of standards.

The disadvantages of the functional type of organization are obvious to the supervisor. The organization pattern itself is difficult to put into effect and maintain. It is hard to develop coordination under such a form. Discipline is difficult to maintain because the employee is responsible to eight supervisors instead of only one. Since the responsibilities of the functionalized foremen are very nearly impossible to define and limit, confusion results. Operations are complex, causing confusion and mounting costs. Obviously the high degree of specialization fails to develop men who are well-trained and prospective executives. Each specialist will lack the rounded and balanced background necessary to the executive.

The line-and-staff type of organization. The line-and-staff type of organization joins the functionalized staff departments which deal with one particular phase of the business to the direct "line" flow of authority provided in the military type. In the manufacturing division of the business, the functional departments guide, and to some extent control, the supervisors, Figure 3. Under this plan of organization the supervisor can retain his one-man control over the personnel under him and at the same time can have his direct responsibilities reduced to within the range of accomplishment. His primary duty is leadership and this type of organization makes it easier for him to carry out this responsibility.

Under this type of organization the executive head of the depart-

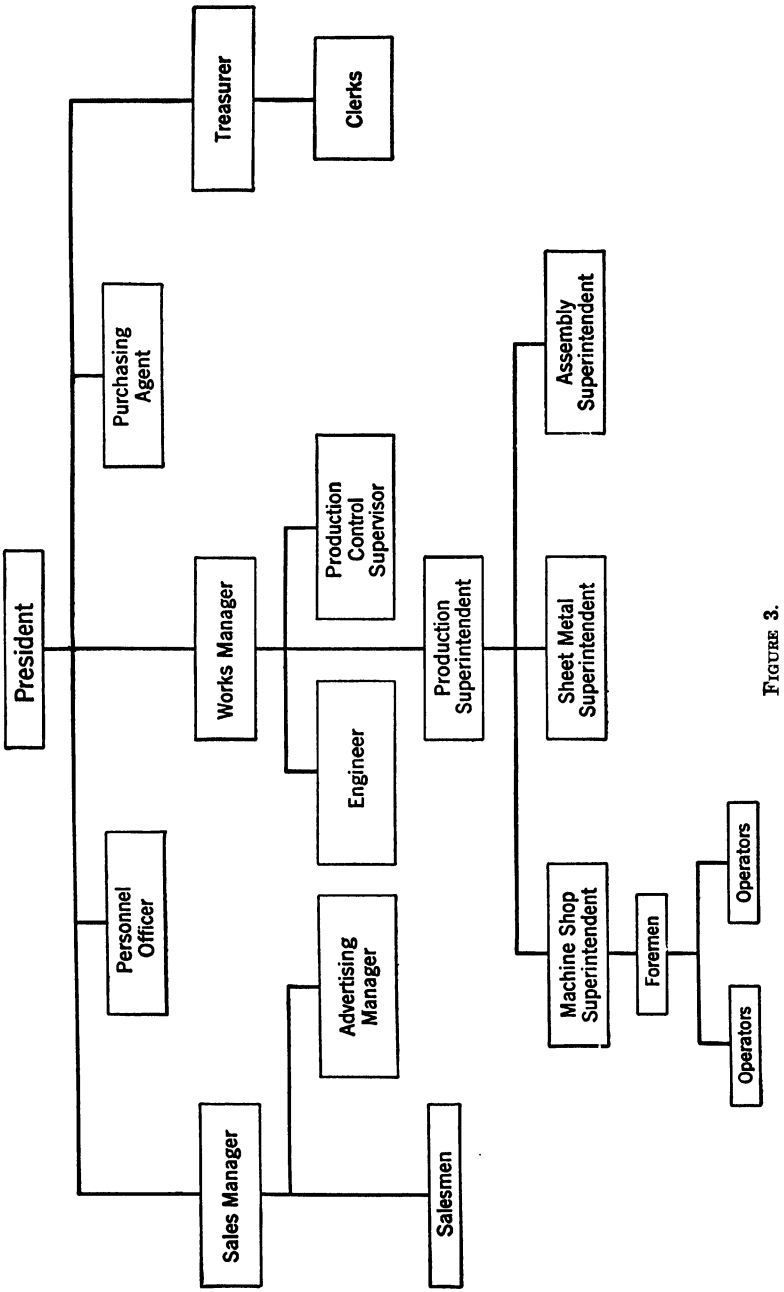

President
Treasurer
Clerks
Purchasing Agent
Personnel Officer
Works Manager
Production Control Supervisor
Engineer
Production Superintendent
Assembly Superintendent
Sheet Metal Superintendent
Machine Shop Superintendent
Foremen
Operators
Operators
Sales Manager
Advertising Manager
Salesmen

FIGURE 3.

ment will have assistants who are specialists in their fields to help him. The works manager will have a staff assistant on engineering problems and another on production control. The president will have technical assistance from his staff men on personnel and purchasing. This is the common form of organization today and the one most frequently encountered by the supervisor. The supervisor will find that he can avail himself of the assistance of these staff men and, if his department is large enough, he may find it necessary to develop staff assistants of his own.

Advantages and disadvantages of the line-and-staff type of organization. The line-and-staff type retains the advantages of the line form of organization yet discards many of its disadvantages. The staff departments are provided to make available specialized technical assistance to the executive but the undivided authority and responsibility of the line type is maintained. The organization is made more flexible by the addition of the staff departments. Staff officers interested in the entire organization act as coordinators and encourage cooperation. The line-and-staff type of organization takes advantage of the principle of specialization and also recognizes that some men are essentially "staff" men while others are "line" men and if the organization is properly manned, those individuals best suited for staff work are placed in such capacities. Likewise the men with the ability required in line work are placed in line positions.

There are disadvantages to the line-and-staff organization, however. In fact the perfect organization is yet to be developed but if the disadvantages in this type of organization are recognized, an effort to anticipate and overcome them can be made. Staff officers lacking in authority cannot enforce their decisions and since they are not responsible for results may sometimes give advice rather carelessly. Again, the addition of staff officers may give men in the line an excuse for failure. Too often staff men have sound ideas but are unable to sell their method to the line man who is responsible for instituting the idea and so it is never tried or if tried does not receive a fair test. Too often the line expects the staff members to do the line thinking, and the result is stagnation of initiative by the line officers. Friction sometimes develops between the line and the staff and frequently the staff may attempt to usurp authority and issue orders. Many of these disadvantages can be avoided under proper leadership. Every supervisor must realize that he must think for himself but that he should use staff assistance if it is available and form his decision accordingly.

The committee idea in organization. The chief fault in creating a new, revising an old, or operating a continuing organization has frequently been the failure of top management to give proper regard to securing the cooperation of the supervisors on whom the success or failure of the organization will ultimately depend. These men must have some share in forming the plans, some share in devising the methods of management. They must be made to feel that the methods being utilized are really in part their own. They must be consulted frequently and thoroughly concerning difficulties and must be encouraged to suggest ways of overcoming them. It is their knowledge, their experience, and their information about the details which must be brought to the aid of the developers of management methods. A type of organization that has proved to be of enormous value in attaining these ideals is the use of committees as aids to management. The committee idea recognizes the human factor, fosters the spirit of cooperation, implants the new ideas of organization, and gives everyone the necessary contact properly to perform his tasks. The committee idea, through organized committees, secures the advice of those best qualified to aid on troublesome problems. It stimulates these men to give the company the best that is in them.

Committees, used extensively today, have developed several different types. Some are committees with full power to consider problems and make decisions that are binding. Others have their power to make decisions limited by the exercise of the veto by the chairman or top management. The advisory type committee can only suggest courses of action to the chairman, aiding him in making the decision for which he is held responsible. The advantages of the committee rest on obtaining decisions or recommendations based on group experience. The use of the committee results in many excellent ideas and combinations of ideas; originating among men from different departments its use tends to facilitate seeing the organization needs as a whole; men of differing classes and levels tend to iron out their differences in viewpoint when serving together on committees (this is especially true of union-management committees); and the committee tends to promote greater interest, enthusiasm, and cooperation within the organization.

The committee strengthens the organization structure by promoting cooperation, facilitating coordination, giving stability and continuity to the organization policies, and rendering collective advice. The committee is an excellent educational device, serving as a method of educating and developing younger members of the organization. Many a supervisor has changed his point of view and broadened his

vision of the organization and its problems by serving on a committee. Often a supervisor has turned a careless employee into a strong advocate of safe practices by placing the employee on a safety committee. The committee type of organization must not be misused, however. As a control device it is weak, because it provides divided responsibility. Committee decisions are frequently the result of compromise. An inherent weakness of the committee form is apparent in its performance of executive functions; as a rule, the committee is not well adapted to the collection of facts or technical data. The committee's most useful function lies in evaluating facts or formulating a policy based on these facts

The development of the committee idea, and particularly the inclusion of supervisors in it, undoubtedly has a good effect on the men and others in the organization. The supervisor's position now becomes a more attractive one to strive for, since it is now *in on the management of the company.*

Multiple management. The well-informed supervisor should also know something about multiple management.[1] Multiple management is an adaptation of the committee plan and possesses in the main all the advantages and disadvantages of the committee. Its most effective use is as a training medium and for promoting cooperation. To work effectively it requires a high type of leadership with a willingness to share responsibility from the top to the bottom of an organization. It is of doubtful use in a large organization but has been effectively used in a small one.

Summary. Management today is organization conscious and the supervisor must fall in line or fail to advance and possibly be lost in the discard. The alert supervisor will recognize that his company organization is another tool at his disposal to make his work more effective. Although the supervisor must be an all-round man he will face problems and will need to make decisions which require specialized assistance. He must know where to go for such help. The organization pattern set up by management is one of the methods it uses to develop coordination within the enterprise and the supervisor is expected to cooperate to effect this coordination. But cooperation is based on knowledge and therefore *the supervisor must know his organization.* The reason for reports and procedures, the "whys" of policies, the authority and responsibilities of departments may be found in the organization and the principles that lie behind the reason-

[1] See Charles P. McCormick, *Multiple Management,* Harper & Brothers, New York, 1938, for an excellent discussion of this entire organization.

ing on which it was developed. Management is on the lookout for supervisors who are organization-minded as a fundamental requirement for executive positions is a knowledge of organization principles, patterns and methods.[2]

[2] The authors are indebted to Anderson and Schwanning, *The Science of Production Organization,* John Wiley and Sons, New York, 1938, for many of the ideas contained in this chapter.

CHAPTER IV

INTERPRETING COMPANY POLICIES

The supervisor and company policies. The supervisor is constantly required to apply and interpret his company's policies in his daily work. In both their application and interpretation he must develop an awareness of his responsibility to both the company and his men. His responsibility to the company is to interpret its policies accurately and in the spirit in which they are intended. His responsibility to the men is to interpret accurately and impartially the company policies. Every supervisor must be familiar with the policies of his company and should understand the basic principles underlying these policies. Just as the supervisor needs to understand the principles behind the development of an organization, so he needs to understand the fundamental principles on which policies are built. A knowledge of these principles will help him successfully to apply, interpret, and explain the company policies to his men. Today men have a habit of asking "Why?" and questioning the reason behind the policy. Therefore, the supervisor must be more than a parrot stating the policy—he must be able to explain the *why* of the policy, the reasoning behind it. Men are more inclined to accept policies, even if they do not like them, when they understand the reasoning behind them. Every supervisor should recognize the direct relationship between interpretation of the company's policies to the men and industrial morale. Much of the industrial unrest and employee dissatisfaction can be traced to failure of the men to understand the company's policies and the reasoning behind them. In larger organizations, the supervisor not only represents the company to the men but also the men to the management. The men's ideas about the company, the management, and its policies are the result of their contact with their supervisor. What they think about the company is the result of his influence on them.

What are company policies? Policies may be broadly defined as that body of principles or rules of conduct by which the aims of the enterprise are to be achieved. Well-founded policies are essential to successful organizations. They point out the definite directions in which the organization moves as well as coordinate the efforts of the various divisions. The supervisor must recognize, however, that pol-

icies are not a universal set of rules or laws which give him an explanation or solution for every difficulty or problem that may arise. They are a guide to him in charting his course of action rather than an exact pattern for him to follow. When he meets problems the supervisor must exercise individual initiative and judgment to solve the problems, keeping his solution in harmony with the general company policies.

Types of policies. There are three types of company policies: the general company policies, operating policies, and departmental policies. The broad general company policies give definiteness and general direction to the activities of the company as a whole. These policies establish the basic principles which guide the management in the conduct of the business now and in the future. To make these general policies effective there is needed a group of operating policies to designate the operating methods of the enterprise. These policies determine the general procedure to be followed in such matters as production, engineering, purchasing, and sales. To make these major policies effective, departmental policies governing the actions in each of these divisions or departments are developed.

The personnel policies. Because personnel policies play an important part in the supervisor's job and he is constantly explaining and interpreting them, they serve as an excellent example for more detailed analysis. Personnel policies consist of that body of principles and rules of conduct that governs the business enterprise in its relationship with its employees. They are a fundamental part of the basic business policies that guide the organization in the achievement of its major objectives. The more clearly these major objectives are outlined, the more specific will be the personnel policies, both in statement and in operation. Personnel policies like business policies in general are dynamic; changing to meet fundamental changes, they nevertheless should possess a large measure of stability. In other words, business policies and personnel policies possess organic unity.

Characteristics of a personnel policy. The sound personnel policy avoids opportunism and is essentially stable, having due regard for the human equation. In the long run, personnel policies will not be sound unless the organization policies are likewise sound. A successful business enterprise possesses organic unity of purpose. A weakness in any function weakens the entire organization. The objectives of an enterprise are naturally influenced by many considerations: competition, tradition in the particular industry, technological development, social approval, the prevailing attitude of labor, governmental controls, and the ideals of the entrepreneurs. In the light of

our present business *mores* a sound personnel policy should in general possess the following characteristics: (1) It should recognize individual differences as to capacities, interests, ambitions, emotional reactions, desire for security, etc. (2) It should recognize the current trend toward group action and a tendency to seek a voice in those phases of management in which the worker is vitally interested. (Management should not be blinded by collective bargaining to the fact that individual differences are important. An employee or a group of employees may feel as lost in a large union as when they had no formal recognition whatever.) (3) It should be definite. Ambiguity and uncertainty are destructive of plant morale. (4) It should be stable yet possess sufficient flexibility to meet changing conditions and the varying needs of individuals. (5) It should be an integrated part of other basic company policies. The lack of organic unity results in confusion. (6) It should provide adequate means for becoming generally known and understood by all interested parties. (7) It should give due regard to the interests of all parties, the employees, the public, and the owners of the capital.

The difference between a policy and a rule of conduct. The supervisor should understand the difference between a policy and a rule of conduct. A policy is more basic than a rule of conduct. Policies change slowly and seldom, whereas rules may be modified at more frequent intervals to meet temporary or changing conditions. The latter is also true of the procedures used to put into practice the policy. Even though rules of conduct and procedures may be changed, it is generally recognized that these should only be changed when it is necessary to meet changed conditions.

Requirements of sound policies. To be effective, company policies must possess organic unity; they must harmonize one with the other. Unity of purpose should permeate the entire business enterprise through its policies. If the personnel policies do not carry out the aims of the enterprise in the same manner as the broad company policies, they not only fail in their purpose but also will result in confusion. In reality, sound policies grow out of the primary and operating fundamentals of organization previously discussed, for they develop naturally when these fundamentals are followed in setting up the organization and establishing its policies. For permanence and as a basis for checking performance policies, wherever feasible, should be put in written form. Over a period of time gradual, unintentional deviations from the policy may radically change a basic policy. This is especially true where the policies involve production standards which must be met. Every supervisor has the responsibility for fol-

lowing up to see that policies are maintained and that the interpretation is in accordance with the letter and the spirit of the policy as originally formulated.

It is the supervisor's responsibility to management to interpret the company policies, to enforce the rules of conduct, and to put into practice the procedures growing out of the policies. The success of any policy, no matter how good or how soundly formulated, depends on the supervisor who explains it. He must explain it *accurately*, that is, as it is worded. Changing a word frequently changes the entire meaning. It is also the supervisor's responsibility to interpret the policy in the *spirit* in which it was intended; he must get across to his men its intent, explaining the reasoning that lies behind it, giving the "why and wherefore." A policy cannot be issued as a top sergeant issues an order. Instead, the supervisor must explain carefully and in detail, until it is thoroughly understood.

Methods of disseminating company policies. There are many ways of getting across company policies to the men. Policies may be released in memorandum form or posted on bulletin boards. Meetings may be held to inform the men about a policy and to discuss it. The best way, when it is possible, is to bring the men together and give them the policy in written form and then, at that time, to discuss it while they have the policy before them. Many companies at the time of hiring give new employees a booklet containing the company policies, but, even if booklets are given to new employees, the supervisor should carefully instruct them to be sure that they understand company policies and are sold on them.

The supervisor's responsibility in applying policies. There are certain details that must be recognized. A knowledge of company policies should be as much a part of the supervisor's equipment as knowledge of his machines and tools. He himself must learn, understand, and be thoroughly familiar with them so that he can interpret them clearly and impartially to his men. *Clearly* means in language the men can understand, with explanations of the "why and wherefore" of the policy, the reasoning that lies behind it. *Impartially* is the essence of putting across the policy to the men and means explaining it fairly, without emphasizing either the company's or the men's side. The supervisor must not only be sold on the company policy as of a given time, but must also *stay sold* on it. In the last analysis, unless he is sold on it, he cannot put it over to the men. They will sense his indecision and doubt and will not fully accept the policy. Too many supervisors take the attitude that company policies are applicable only to the other fellow but they, too, must live up to the letter and

spirit of company policies so that they can expect their men to do so. The supervisor must remember that one of the steps in building and maintaining morale in his department is the proper introduction, interpretation, and follow-up of company policies. When the supervisor is sold on the company policies and his men are in accord with them, the supervisor is well on the way to having a smoothly operating department with high morale.

Fundamentals on which policies are founded. Since the supervisor himself will lay down simple policies in his department, it is necessary that he understand the fundamentals on which departmental policies are founded. These fundamentals include: (1) the primary and operating fundamentals of organization, (2) due regard for working conditions and hours of work, (3) an ever present consciousness of the need for safe practices, (4) a clear recognition of quality and quantity requirements, (5) a definite awareness of the need for cost control, (6) a recognition of the desire of employees for a fair wage, of management for a fair return on its investments, and of the public's desire for a quality product on a quantity basis at a fair price, and (7) an attitude of square dealing to men, to management, and to the public. The supervisor in developing the policies for his department must always take into consideration the aims of the enterprise and regard for the personal equation. If his policies are contrary to either of these primary fundamentals of organization, the policy will not be successful. The supervisor must allow for the fixing of responsibility and set his policies within the framework of the lines of supervision. Policy formulation and interpretation demands effective leadership and, to carry out the policy, the supervisor will have to establish an adequate system and provide for the necessary records. Every departmental policy must be balanced between the management and the men, fair to both. In policy formulation, the supervisor must be cost conscious, man conscious, and product conscious. Every policy developed within the department must be considered from the viewpoints of its effect on costs, how it will affect product quantity and quality, and its effect on the men in terms of their earnings, their hours, and their working conditions. Finally, the supervisor must know the basic company policies to be certain that his departmental policies will possess organic unity with the general company policies.

Some major difficulties the supervisor will encounter in interpreting company policies. Every supervisor at one time or another has interpreted company policies and has met certain difficulties during the course of the interpretation. If the supervisor does not clearly

understand the policy he is attempting to explain, he will certainly have trouble getting it across to his men. This difficulty again emphasizes the need for the supervisor to learn and thoroughly to understand the policy. No supervisor should ever attempt to introduce and interpret a policy to his men unless he has fully digested it himself. This does not mean mere memorizing, but analysis of the policy—examining it to see where it is to be applied and to find illustrations that can be used in its explanation. The supervisor cannot take it for granted that new men know or will pick up the company policies. Even when the new employee is given the company's policies in written form, the supervisor is still responsible for seeing to it that the new man reads and understands them. He cannot even be sure that the old employees remember and follow the policies that have been given to them. The successful supervisor never takes anything for granted. This is one place where the supervisor should be especially careful to follow this practice. A major difficulty is encountered when the supervisor assumes that, because a policy has once been explained, it would always be followed, even when it was used only at infrequent intervals. This difficulty arises from the fact that men are inclined to remember only those policies which they use regularly. Those used only at rare intervals are likely to be forgotten. The group will change and new men will come in over a period of time. From these facts it is clear that the supervisor must constantly follow up and re-explain policies that are infrequently used. The supervisor should be certain that all basic company policies, all major policies, and all departmental policies that affect the men are clearly understood by each man in his department.

Techniques the supervisor can use in interpreting policies. There are certain techniques or methods that the supervisor can use to his advantage in selling company policies to his men. When the supervisor knows the company's policies so well that they become a part of his everyday thoughts and actions, then his department will have no trouble following the company's policies. Company policies are second nature to the successful supervisor. As has been reiterated in the foregoing pages, the supervisor must make the company's policies a part of his thought processes. The supervisor should see that in making decisions they are in accord with the company policies. If his reactions to problems are decisions based on the company policies, his department will never be in a confused state. The supervisor will find that personal instruction of the men will help when a particular point involving a policy is raised. It is not sufficient for the supervisor merely to decide and base his decision on the policy.

He should explain the policy to the individual employee involved and see that the employee understands how the policy applies to the particular point raised. This personal contact with the men on policies will pay big dividends. Men like to know the "why" as well as the "what" of a decision. Explanation builds cooperation, increases the men's respect for the supervisor, and develops his leadership among them.

Policies help the supervisor. Many supervisors feel that written policies hinder them and tie them down. They take the attitude that the rules of conduct and the procedures growing out of policies restrict their freedom and make their work routine, depriving them of the opportunity to make decisions. Actually the reverse is true, as the successful supervisor realizes. Policies, rules, procedures all make the supervisor's work easier—they are his guides to action. They steer his initiative and judgment into the correct channel. They serve to furnish him with the conclusions reached by others with more experience. They relieve him of making many routine decisions he would otherwise have to make, thereby freeing him for other work. In the last analysis, he must still use all his skill in formulating judgments and applying his initiative to interpreting and explaining policies.

The supervisor can aid management in formulating wise company policies. With the passage of time there develops a need for new policies and changes in old ones. Policies should be stable yet flexible enough to meet changing conditions. The supervisor can aid management in this respect by knowing his men, their desires, and ambitions. He should be alive to changing conditions that give rise to new or changed policies. Knowing the men is not sufficient, nor is merely recognizing changing conditions; he must see that the information with the necessary facts reaches his superior. Yet the supervisor cannot furnish this aid to management unless he understands management's policies and objectives. Only the knowledge of management's side plus the knowledge of the men's desires will make it possible for the supervisor's suggestions or recommendations to be sound. It is the supervisor's responsibility to harmonize the company policies with the work the men are doing and to keep management informed of the results. This is a dual responsibility—to the management to interpret its policies and to the men to see that they understand these policies, resulting in both working in the same way and using the same method to accomplish the common objectives of the enterprise.

CHAPTER V

THE SUPERVISOR—A REPRESENTATIVE OF MANAGEMENT TO MEN AND MEN TO MANAGEMENT

The supervisor's position. In large-scale industry today the key man, so far as both the employee and the management are concerned, is the supervisor. Hired by management and as an employee of management he is naturally expected to represent its interests. Since the supervisor's personal success is largely determined by the performance of his men, he is also charged with the responsibility of looking after their interests. Every supervisor recognizes that in the final analysis his men make or break him. The importance of this dual relationship of the supervisor, representing the management to the men and representing the men to management, cannot be overemphasized. The supervisor not only *represents* management to the men but to the average employee the supervisor is the company. If he is a good supervisor, impartially representing both the men and the management, the company (as far as supervision is concerned) is a good one for which to work. Poor supervision, especially when it is overbalanced on the side of management, results in the men's rapidly coming to feel that the company is not a good place to work. The supervisor should also recognize the need for representing the men to the management. Since the supervisor is the liaison officer between the men and the management he falls down in his responsibility to management if he does not keep it informed concerning the difficulties his men face and the way they feel. Unless he keeps the management informed it does not possess all the information necessary to make sound decisions.

In a very real sense the supervisor is the directing head of an important industrial unit. It is true that his department is intimately related to other departments within the enterprise, that his success is dependent upon the performance of other departments that precede his; but it is equally true that the departments that follow his cannot function effectively unless the work in his department has been properly executed. The supervisor must see that materials are available for his men, that men are available and trained for the various tasks, that work is performed according to specifications, that quality is

maintained, that each man turns out the quantity of work expected of him, that the machines are in proper working order, and that the machines are operated in such a manner that they will give maximum life as well as maximum output. It is not unusual for a supervisor in a large organization to have more men under his direct supervision than plant managers in small institutions. These supervisors are, in reality, general managers of their departments. It is true the supervisor may have staff or functional assistance in performing many of his duties, yet such aids do not wholly relieve him of any of his responsibility. A wise group of staff or functional officers will consult the supervisor in making many of their decisions. These staff officers relieve him of many of the details that he formerly had to care for, but he still remains an important person in the proper functioning of these specialized staff or functional departments. By being relieved of some of the details, the supervisor is enabled to exercise more effective *leadership* in his department. He is no longer required to be an ultra specialist in many things but he must still be an all-round leader. The supervisor still remains a specialist in one thing—the handling of men. Being the closest representative of management to the men his one chief function as a specialist remains the understanding, guiding, and controlling of the men under his direction.

Many industrial troubles between management and the men originate because of either's misunderstanding the problems or difficulties faced by the other. The supervisor standing between them is in an advantageous position to prevent such misunderstandings and to show each the problems and difficulties faced by the other. The supervisor serves both management and the men by clearly and carefully interpreting one to the other. It is possible that much industrial strife could have been avoided had supervisors as a whole clearly understood and carried out their responsibilities.

The place of the supervisor in the lives of his men. The supervisor plays an important part in the social and industrial lives of his men. Hired by management and representing it he naturally assumes the prerogatives of leadership in the eyes of his men. Given this natural advantage the supervisor should make the most of it, *developing and building his capacity for leadership.* Every supervisor should remember men like to be led by a leader in whom they have confidence. The beginning of this confidence comes from the supervisor's position, but he must develop and maintain it through his actions. The fact that the approval of the supervisor is necessary for most promotions and wage increases, gives him a vital influence over the economic lives of his men as long as they remain employees

of the company. Many supervisors forget the tremendous part they play in the lives of their men. Both earnings and position and especially job security of the men under his direction are largely dependent on the supervisor and his actions. This is a serious responsibility not to be taken lightly. Actions taken with respect to a man should be based on facts and full consideration should always be given by the supervisor to the effects of his acts upon the entire group. Too often in considering wage increases or promotions the supervisor will quickly select several men and let it go at that. This often results in overlooking the most deserving and best fitted men for the increases or promotions. Every supervisor should recognize that he should consider every man in his group in relation to every other man when taking action relative to wages or promotions.

Establishing a balanced relationship. The supervisor, representing management to the men and the men to management, must establish a *balanced relationship* between these two phases of his work so that he will be able to deal fairly and squarely with both. Frequently supervisors get out of balance. Sometimes a particular supervisor will lean over backwards to be on either one side or the other. Some supervisors attempt to sacrifice the men to the interests of the management, others are only concerned with the interests of the men and forget their responsibilities to management. When the supervisor gets out of balance either way he is heading for trouble. To carry out his responsibility completely he will have to consider the interests of both management and the men. In the long run the interests of both are identical, but in the short run the interests may be different. For example, the men may demand a wage increase without considering the fact that production and sales do not justify the increase. After all wages are paid out of gross income of the company, and if they exceed a reasonable proportion of this figure the excess can come out of capital or surplus. This leaves the men, if they insist on the wage increase, with the possibility of the company's going bankrupt and their being without a job. Many times when the short-range interests of management and the men are not identical the supervisor is required to decide which interests are right from both the short- and long-range viewpoints and, siding in with that group, must strive to show the other where it is wrong.

Many supervisors tend to lean in one direction, often as a result of their own background. It is only natural that men recently promoted to line supervisors' jobs lean toward the side of the men. Other men, without experience at the bench or on machines, will tend to lean toward management. Realizing these tendencies, every super-

visor should study himself to avoid any bias and, in every action he takes, should try to square his actions with the basic policies of the company.

The supervisor represents management to the men in many ways. The more important ways in which the supervisor represents management to the men may be divided under two headings, general and specific. Under the general heading there may be included: (1) to transmit faithfully managerial policies to the men, (2) to transmit the men's desires and aims to management (this is a dual function and the supervisor owes this to both the management and the men), (3) to get out the required production on time, (4) to maintain standards of quality, (5) to formulate plans and methods to increase productive efficiency, (6) to reduce all waste and scrap to a minimum, (7) to keep accurate records from which future actions can be guided, (8) to render reports as required. Some of the specific things in which the supervisor represents management to the men are: (1) wages, (2) promotions, (3) assignment to a specific job, (4) safety, (5) layoffs and days worked, (6) recalls, (7) merit rating, (8) instruction on the job, (9) working conditions, and (10) providing inspirational leadership.

The effect of the supervisor's attitude on his men. To a large degree, *the men reflect the attitude of their supervisor* and he sets the tempo for the feeling that the men have toward their jobs, their department, and their company. It cannot be said too often or too emphatically that, to the men, the supervisor is in a large measure the company. It is easy for the supervisor to forget this fact and represent himself, his attitude, and feelings, rather than the company. Modern management strives to develop a working force of satisfied employees and, in general, policies are directed to this end. Only when the supervisor recognizes his responsibility impartially to represent management to the men and carries out this responsibility to his fullest capacity can the company expect to have satisfied employees.

The supervisor has definite means at his disposal to meet this responsibility. First and foremost, the supervisor must set a good example, showing in his actions and his talk that he believes in the aims and the policies of the company and follows them as they are laid down. The supervisor who carries out the orders of management, promptly and properly, is setting a good example, leading his men and his department toward cooperation with other departments and coordinating his department's work with the larger operations of the company. The supervisor represents management properly when

he interprets orders to the men clearly and simply, giving explicit information to the men about their work. When changes are made in methods, product, operations, or policies, the supervisor who is doing a good job in representing management will carefully explain to the men, as far as possible, all the reasons lying behind the change. It is always well to remember, in representing management, that the men not only want to know the *what* but also the *why* of the change in policy. The supervisor of today will do well to remember that the work group has undergone a change during the past twenty years. The men are, in many cases, younger in years but more mature in outlook. They are definitely better educated. Twenty years ago the high school graduate seldom entered the factory. Today the high school graduate is found everywhere. The men are anxious to advance and with this in mind are studying their jobs, other jobs, the supervisor, and the company as a whole. Men today have a questioning attitude and seek the company and the work environment that they feel will satisfy them. In general they are open-minded and willing to be convinced but they must be sold by facts. The supervisor who is successful today bases his actions with his men on facts and his ability to use these facts in leading his men to the combined objectives of the company, the department, and the individual employee.

Major responsibilities of the supervisor to the men. The supervisor not only is responsible to the management but also to the men. Some of the major responsibilities of the supervisor to the men under his direction are: (1) to provide adequate instruction in company policies, in correct methods of performing required operations, and in the next job ahead to prepare the men for promotion if a vacancy occurs, (2) to maintain satisfactory working conditions such as cleanliness, order, safety, and an even flow of work, (3) to maintain discipline, (4) to promote cooperative effort and good will, (5) to represent the men to management, (6) to promote and transfer men impartially when the opportunity is present, (7) to rate the men fairly for the purposes of wage determination, (8) to encourage suggestions and give credit where credit is due, (9) to strive to fit each employee into the job for which his capacities are best fitted, (10) to recognize individual differences, and (11) to provide inspirational leadership.

The supervisor can consider his job in the light of the familiar representation of Justice, holding in her hands a balance scale. The balance on one side is weighted with his responsibilities to represent management to the men, the other balance contains his responsibilities to the men to represent them to management. The solution to every supervisor's problem resolves itself into keeping the scales in balance

by meeting his dual responsibility both by representing the management to the men and the men to the management, fairly and equally.

How can the supervisor maintain a balanced relationship? The successful supervisor recognizes the tendency to lean slightly in one direction and strives to overcome this weakness. There are well-defined practices that the supervisor may follow in keeping to the middle path of balance between the men and management. These practices include: (1) avoid prejudices and strive to develop a judicial attitude in all matters where there is a conflict in interests, (2) continuously study his men, (3) know the company policies, (4) encourage goodwill by manifesting it himself. (5) lead in teamwork, and (6) practice loyalty. Since the supervisor is a representative of management, the supervisor must exercise great care not to let his men feel that he is on their side at the expense of management. He may voice an objection to management when he thinks a particular action is not desirable; however, after management has considered all the factors involved, the supervisor should make management's decision his own, present it sincerely to his men and not "pass the buck." It is recognized that management can be wrong. Such a situation places the supervisor in a tight spot. If the supervisor cannot conscientiously carry out management's policies he should resign. The supervisor in his work with the men should work constantly toward developing in himself a judicial attitude. With practice he will find that being fair and impartial will gradually become a habit. Every successful supervisor knows his men well. This knowledge only comes through continued study of his men. Learning to know them is not sufficient, for over a period of time men change. Many a supervisor has said, "But I thought I knew my men," when what he should have said is, "I used to know them but I stopped studying them." *The supervisor must remember actions speak louder than words.* The actions of the supervisor toward his men and toward management and other departments will determine the teamwork he develops in his own department. With the men, actions count far more than words. Every supervisor is under the spotlight, his men watch his every action, and unless he practices what he preaches the men will note it and act accordingly. This is especially true in winning the loyalty of the men. *If one would have loyalty, he must first be loyal.* A good leader wins his men's loyalty by being loyal to them.

The position of a supervisor and a referee compared. Supervisors are frequently compared to referees and in some respects they are alike but in other respects they are far different. The supervisor, like the referee, is expected to be fair and impartial in all his decisions,

calling them as he sees them with due respect to the rules and regulations. Each must possess a judicial attitude and be on the alert constantly, ready to make a decision. The referee and the supervisor both stand between two groups, but the referee is representing neither —he is only present to see that each will do its part according to the rules of the game. The supervisor, on the other hand, represents both groups, a far more difficult position. The referee owes his allegiance to neither side but the supervisor must be loyal to both. The referee, standing between two competing organizations, is not concerned with the outcome so long as the struggle is conducted according to the rules.

The supervisor, unlike the referee, has a vital interest in the outcome of the struggle, for his position and future are involved. Although the supervisor interprets the rules and regulations he also has a vital interest in seeing that they carry out the aims of the enterprise and result in effective teamwork. The supervisor is a coordinator between two cooperating groups and his vital interest is in promoting the common interests of both groups. The referee rarely interprets a rule; the supervisor may do so frequently but with discretion. The referee never considers the interests of both sides in arriving at a decision—to him one side only is right, the other is wrong. The supervisor looks at both sides, weighs the facts, and then makes his decision which is often a compromise. The referee usually has certain hard and fast rules to follow, whereas the supervisor frequently has to follow tradition or policies and build his decision on the basis of them. The supervisor cannot consider himself only as a referee between the men and management. His is a greater responsibility; he represents both, he has a dual responsibility to represent one to the other to the end that all three, the supervisor, the men, and the management work toward a common end, the achievement of the aims of the enterprise.

Factors affecting the supervisor's position. There are two factors in the supervisor's position, when his dual responsibility to men and management is considered, to which he must pay special attention. They are the use of *authority* and *favoritism*. The position of the supervisor of necessity carries with it certain authority with the right to use this authority within certain limits. His position likewise affords him the opportunity to play favorites to a considerable degree, should he be so inclined. Every successful supervisor has learned to *use authority sparingly and never to display it.* It is amazing how a little authority will go to a person's head and many a young supervisor has stumbled because he immediately relied on his authority to carry him through a situation requiring leadership. A real leader rarely has to use his authority. Whenever a supervisor has to fall

back on his authority to get something done, he may rest assured that his right to leadership is being questioned. When the supervisor leans back on his authority, he is waving a red flag before his men and usually they will meet the challenge. Authority overused becomes useless as a supervisory tool. Authority has its place and may be used occasionally, but its place and use are rare. As a last resort, the supervisor will call it into play only when he has exhausted every other means and device at his control. The supervisor should not display his authority and should never hold it as a threat over the heads of his men. Its use, when necessary, should ordinarily be in the privacy of the supervisor's office with only the man on whom it is to be exercised present. The successful supervisor has found many other devices and techniques available to control his department, keeping the men in line and accomplishing desired ends without falling back on the authority vested in him as supervisor.

A supervisor finds during the course of his work ample opportunity to show favoritism to various men in his department. Many departments have easy and hard jobs, low-rated and high-rated jobs, and overtime or emergency work may always be necessary. It is relatively easy for the supervisor in assigning men to jobs to develop a tendency to play favorites on job assignments. When the supervisor recognizes this tendency toward favoritism he will be doubly careful to avoid its manifestation. The supervisor should be impartial and should not under any circumstances permit any factor to color his decisions about his men or the selection of men to perform certain tasks. The supervisor who seeks to avoid favoritism will find the following guide helpful: (1) impartially assign easy jobs, (2) impartially assign hard jobs, (3) impartially assign dirty jobs, (4) impartially assign clean jobs, (5) impartially assign emergency jobs, (6) impartially assign jobs requiring overtime, (7) always avoid any semblance of selection based on nationality, religion, politics, fraternity, age, or family relationships, and (8) keep adequate records as an aid in carrying out the avowed policy of impartiality. The supervisor must see that the men share these jobs, in turn or some other way, so that no favoritism is shown even in the slightest degree. Once the supervisor gains the reputation of playing favorites his difficulties begin.

Cooperation with his men and other departments. Among the responsibilities of the supervisor to his men is the development of goodwill among the men leading toward their cooperation with him and the cooperation of his department with other departments. To receive cooperation, the supervisor must first give it. There are a number of places where the degree to which the supervisor's willingness

to cooperate will be watched by his men. Their cooperation with him will depend to a large degree on his cooperation with the other departments and with his own men. The supervisor cooperates with other departments in achieving quantity production, quality production, and in the lending and transfer of men. Mass production today demands complete cooperation between departments in the processing and moving of materials from department to department as rapidly as possible. Here the supervisor must see that as rapidly as his department finishes work on the product it is moved without delay to the next department. On the other hand, he must be certain that the material he moves passes inspection and will be satisfactory for use in the next department. Where there are staff departments working with the supervisor, such as production control or inspection, he must give them his fullest cooperation in making their work effective. Here again he is also cooperating with the departments following him because these staff departments must service the product before it can leave his department. When unavoidable shortages of men occur or overloads on departments develop, the supervisor may be called on to lend men to other departments. In such instances the supervisor cannot send his least capable men, for, if he does, he can expect the same in return when it becomes necessary for him to borrow men because of shortage or trouble. The wise supervisor soon learns that he only gets what he gives, that cooperation is a two-way process. When the men see that the supervisor willingly cooperates with other departments, they will usually cooperate with him.

Special awards to men. The supervisor can on occasion give special rewards to his men for service above the average or above what may be expected of them. This is one of the incentives he has at his disposal and cannot be considered a form of favoritism provided these awards are open to all who meet the requirements and provided the men, as well as the supervisor, recognize the outstanding contribution of the man to be rewarded. These awards may include: (1) wage increases for continued production above the average, (2) financial or other rewards for suggestions resulting in a constructive measurable saving, (3) preferred assignment to a particular job or machine, and (4) finally, recommendation for promotion to positions in higher wage brackets or with additional responsibility. However, the supervisor must be certain that the men, as well as the supervisor, recognize that the award is given on merit. These rewards should be used judiciously, however, and only after careful consideration of all the men who are eligible. Occasionally a supervisor has found out, after

it was too late to do anything about it, that the man he selected was neither the best nor the most deserving.

The supervisor must assume full responsibility. The supervisor must be willing to assume full responsibility for his department, the men in it, the work to be performed therein, and for the results of his own acts and decisions. He cannot expect to shirk or to dodge any of his tasks. The supervisor must expect to take the blame for mistakes as well as the credit due him for successes. Among the major tasks in his department is the responsibility of maintaining a balanced relationship in representing management to the men and the men to management. The supervisor can delegate many of his duties, but above all he can never delegate the responsibility for representing both men and management. It is his and his alone; both management and his men hold him solely responsible for representing them fairly and impartially to each other. It is a major problem, one always present and never completely solved, yet the supervisor who fulfils this responsibility adequately, is well on his way to success, both with his men and with the management for whom he works.

CHAPTER VI

PLANNING THE WORK OF THE DEPARTMENT

The part planning plays in the work of the supervisor. Skill in planning is one of the requirements for success in supervision. Every supervisor should develop a consciousness of the need for planning his personal tasks and the work of his department. Planning is a prerequisite for the successful operation of a department. Without it the supervisor cannot possibly meet the requirements and standards of the company. The ability to plan is a technique every supervisor needs and like other skills it comes only with long assiduous practice and cultivation. If unnecessary delays are to be avoided, unnecessary waste of material eliminated, effective use of machines and equipment is to be realized, and manpower is to be effectively utilized, planning is essential. Ability to plan is one of the essentials of leadership and a requirement for every supervisor who expects to advance. *No supervisor is entitled to the confidence of his men, unless he is willing to plan for them.*

Planning is thinking ahead or thinking a thing through and requires a high type of constructive analysis. Good planning is not mechanical but some mechanical devices may be used in planning. Unless the supervisor uses some type of effective planning, he will leave many things undone. It is a waste of energy for the supervisor to burden his mind with unnecessary details that can be taken care of by constructive planning. The supervisor will understand how necessary planning is to him when he stops to realize that planning precedes the setting of the organizational objectives, the development of the organization itself, the determination of policies, and the flow of work throughout the organization. If planning is essential in the larger aspects of the enterprise, then certainly it is also essential in the smaller unit of which the supervisor is the directing head.

Types of planning. There are two types of planning, namely, *institutional* and *departmental* or divisional. Institutional planning sets up the procedures for attaining the major institutional objectives, divides the institutional activities into major functional divisions, such as finance, production, and sales, and provides for the development of the institutional budget. Successful organizations, like successful in-

dividuals, are budget conscious today. Departmental or divisional planning involves both the coordination of the work of the supervisor's department with the other departments within the organization and the smooth and successful operation of his department. The supervisor assists in the institutional planning that is done by top management. He furnishes through records and suggestions the details that are needed for broad planning. For example, in the development of budgets the department supervisor checks the required manpower and labor costs, makes recommendations on equipment capacity and suitable equipment available or needed for the work to be done. His advice may be asked concerning operation methods, such as shift rotation and the hours of shifts. Although institutional planning comes down to the supervisor in the form of orders telling him what to do, prior to the development of the institutional plan the supervisor has already told his superior what he can do with his present equipment and manpower. A reciprocal relationship must be present in all successful institutional planning, a two-way flow of ideas, from the supervisor up to the management in the form of facts and recommendations and then from the management down to the supervisor in the form of policies, procedures, and orders.

Departmental planning by the supervisor fits into the primary and operating fundamentals of an organization. Organizational objectives can only be realized departmentally, if they are understood and a definite program is followed to achieve them. Planning is the basis of that program. Lines of supervision within the department can be assigned only as the result of careful planning if maximum results are to be obtained. Unless responsibilities are assigned only after careful planning, gaps will occur and, as every supervisor knows, everybody's business is nobody's business. Effective use of personnel must be planned or the supervisor is likely to overlook the personal equation. Any system that is put into effect should be the outgrowth of careful planning. Coordination, the synchronizing force of all line-and-staff organizations, can only be achieved through careful planning. Effective coordination supported by dynamic leadership results in teamwork, or cooperation, and a high departmental morale. Effective industrial leadership presumes careful planning supported by a dynamic force and the will to carry out the plan. Contrary to the wishful thinking of many supervisors, leadership does not come naturally to most people. It is not an innate quality but comes only after long, hard work. Leadership qualities can be developed by the supervisor, but only as the result of careful planning and long practice. Effective records are the result of planning and the supervisor who installs

systems and records without careful planning and research is likely to find them expensive and useless. Records are essential as a part of planning, but should be developed to serve a specific purpose. Likewise, operating rules and regulations that are not planned are likely to be conflicting and subject to frequent change to make them workable. One reason planning pays dividends is that it minimizes change and tends to allow time to care for the emergencies that do arise. Planning facilitates the use of the "exception principle" in management.

Some basic considerations in departmental planning. Since planning is essential to the carrying out of the primary and operating fundamentals in the operation of the supervisor's department, it will be well to examine some of the basic considerations in departmental planning. The supervisor must understand the reasons for planning, the kinds of planning, and how these affect both him personally and his men. But knowing what planning is about and how it affects him and his department is not sufficient. The supervisor must plan the work of his department to cooperate with other departments, to coordinate the work of his department with the whole institutional program. This coordination requires that the supervisor and his department (1) be able to handle work in the proper sequence received from other departments, (2) be able to supply other departments with worked materials which they should receive from his department and must have to carry on their work, and (3) help other departments, if emergencies or breakdowns occur, by taking a part of their work or by lending them men.

Before cooperation with other departments is possible, however, the supervisor must carefully plan the work in his own department. Planning within the department or within the enterprise as a whole is made up of three major divisions: routing, scheduling, and dispatching. *Routing* is establishing the sequence or path to be followed by a piece of material to be fabricated or a task to be accomplished. *Scheduling* is the setting of the time when each operation is to be started and finished. *Dispatching* is the actual releasing of orders and starting of operations. Essential in the dispatching step is *follow-up* to find out if the work is accomplished, if it is done on schedule, what obstacles develop, and if there is a better way to do the work the next time. Here is the place where many a supervisor falls down. He develops a sound plan and then fails to follow up after putting it into operation. The plan may have to be changed because new conditions arise. Unless the supervisor follows up and is on top of his planning as it goes into operation, he cannot see that the necessary changes are

made as they are needed with the result that delays occur and departmental efficiency decreases.

The supervisor should keep clearly in mind that planning is not entirely a mechanical operation, although it requires the use of such mechanical devices as charts, planning boards, and forms. To the uninitiated it may appear that routing, scheduling, and dispatching are mechanical processes; however, effective planning must be predicated on a complete knowledge of the capacities and reasonably expected performance of the men, machines, and materials. Inherent in planning itself, but before any planning can be done, the supervisor must possess a complete knowledge of operating conditions. It cannot be said too often that the supervisor must know his men and must keep on knowing them, because men change; their desires, interests, and capacities expand and contract due to new and changing conditions. Machines grow old or may be rebuilt. Machine capacities this year may not be the same as last year. Major processes change as do minor methods within the process. There are variables in materials even when they are purchased from the same source and to the same specifications. One time the materials will work more easily and therefore faster, and the next time they may cause trouble and result in the slowing down of production. These are all facts the supervisor must have at his fingertips before he can start his planning which results in the routing, scheduling, and dispatching. Wise supervisors make due allowance for unexpected emergencies, such as machine breakdowns, absences of employees, or special rush orders. Rarely does a department operate at 100 per cent efficiency for very long. Therefore, the supervisor will plan for production at a rate which he knows he can maintain. Past experience gives the supervisor knowledge on which he can determine the productive capacity of his department. Hopes or expectations have no place in planning; only facts can be used as the basis of planning if the plan is to be successful. Good planning always allows for unforeseen emergencies and provides for alternatives which can be placed in operation should they be required.

Finally, planning is predicated on proper organization within the department, so that responsibilities and authority are properly distributed and the men in supervisory positions have *time to supervise.* Unfortunately, the supervisor is frequently the one most responsible for departmental delays because he is so overloaded with details that he simply does not have time for urgently needed planning, yet he will refuse to delegate these details to others. Many supervisors make the mistake of *too much personal doing* and *too little constructive planning.* If the supervisor is going to use his men and machines ef-

fectively, a great deal of planning will be required. Therefore, the wise supervisor does not overload himself with details but instead provides for the care of details by delegating them to others and by setting up procedures so that he has to attend only to the exceptions. Thus he frees himself to have time for the constructive planning that results in a successful department. Planning does not just happen; it only develops as the result of the supervisor's taking time out to do it.

The effect of planning on production. Primarily, the supervisor's job is to get out production. When the company executives look at the supervisor's record, their eyes first turn to his production record. Production is, to a high degree, controlled by the planning the supervisor has done. When the causes of low production are examined, the major causes are usually found to include: material supply, equipment, power, improper instruction, untrained men, and deliberate restriction of output by the men. All except the last are the result of poor planning. When the supervisor lacks materials for his men, the fault lies with either his planning, the planning in the departments preceding his, or the central planning department if one is in use. Most frequently lack of materials is caused by his failing to requisition materials in time and in sufficient amounts to keep his men busy. Untrained men are definitely the result of inadequate planning. If the supervisor fails to see his needs in terms of men sufficiently in advance of needing them, it is obvious that he has failed to plan ahead. When the supervisor has materials on hand, has obtained his men in advance of his needs, and has trained them, only to find that faulty instruction has resulted in inadequate training, the fault again rests with the supervisor's planning—it is his failure to plan the proper type of instruction, and to allow for sufficient time to put the instruction to work. Lack of proper equipment resulting in low production is largely due to lack of planning. It may be true that the supervisor planned for additional equipment or asked in advance for changes to be made in his equipment to adapt it to the new work and the management failed to fulfil his requests. However, the foregoing situation seldom arises when the supervisor has developed a reputation for knowing his needs and getting results. Such a supervisor's reputation is the result of operating successfully according to a carefully laid plan. Even when power is the cause of low production, ordinarily lack of planning is the basic cause, although that planning is the responsibility of the supervisor's superiors.

The effect of poor planning on the men. Poor planning or lack of planning on the part of the supervisor has the definite effect of lower-

ing morale within the department. It makes little difference whether planning is totally lacking or just poorly done; men are interested only in results. The men lose confidence in the supervisor's leadership, because they cannot be sure of their earnings per day or per week, nor for that matter, of their job. Planning has a definite effect on the men's pocketbooks and, when poor planning results in a decrease in earnings, they lose interest in their work, begin to lack confidence in their supervisor, and their loyalty to the company wanes. The final result will be high labor turnover, especially among the best men. In summary, poor planning results in lowered morale among the men, uncertainty as to their earnings, lack of confidence in their supervisor, lack of confidence in and loyalty to the company, and high labor turnover.

Effective planning produces the opposite results. It is the fundamental step, the first one in the supervisor's winning and holding the confidence of his men and establishing himself among them as a leader. When his planning is sound, equipment is in good condition, completely overhauled and tooled, materials are plentiful, the men are trained, their earnings are fair, they have confidence in and are loyal to their company, and labor turnover is low.

Steps to be followed by the supervisor in his departmental planning. Planning to be successful must itself be well organized and well thought out. The supervisor must have all the facts available to him before he can do a sound job of planning. These facts on which the supervisor must base his planning include a knowledge of his men and of his equipment and an analysis of the job requirements. We have previously said that the supervisor must know his men and know them well, as they are. This information is fundamental to the supervisor in every step he takes in handling the work of his department. Knowing his men the supervisor trains them to become what he wants them to be, both versatile and highly productive. No supervisor ever starts out with a group of men who are wholly satisfactory. Once he knows them and knows what they are, he then must train them to be what he would have them be. Essentially the supervisor needs men who are versatile, able to perform several different kinds of work effectively and at maximum productive efficiency.

The supervisor must know his equipment, again as it is. He must know exactly what he needs better to meet the requirements demanded of his department. He must see that his equipment is properly maintained and his machines adequately tooled. The supervisor must analyze the requirements of the job he has to do. Knowing his men and his machines, he must fit the men to the machines in terms of the

work to be done. It may be necessary to adapt the machines to the work; it may be necessary to train the men for the adapted machines and the kind of work required. This requires planning for retraining of old men or the securing and training of new men to staff the machines and do the work.

With the above factors in mind, the supervisor then selects the men and equipment to meet the needs of each situation, plans a definite time schedule and arranges to follow up the adopted plan of action. The planning of the definite time schedule involves the steps of routing, scheduling, and dispatching. The follow-up is necessary to determine whether or not the plan is working successfully, to meet the emergencies that arise, to adapt the plan to the changing situation, and to decide from experience what improvement can be made in the plan the next time the same work is to be done. The importance of the follow-up stage cannot be overemphasized. The supervisor can only develop his ability to plan by constant practice and review of his planning. Likewise, improvement in his department's work can only come from benefiting by past experience so that each time the same work must be done again, it can be done more effectively, faster, at a lower cost, and with less effort.

The relationship of the supervisor to centralized planning. In many institutions the work and sequence of work are controlled by a special centralized production department. Such a procedure relieves the departmental supervisor of much of the clerical work involved when he does his own scheduling, routing, and dispatching. This merely gives him more time to concentrate on effective workmanship, new methods, instructions to his workers, quality, and those items for which he is best qualified. He still has a real job on his hands to distribute his time most effectively. Even where central planning is followed, many things, requiring close cooperation with the central planning department, can go wrong. That department helps him and gives him time to perform his tasks, but it does not relieve the supervisor of his responsibility to see that production flows smoothly.

The abilities required of the supervisor in effective planning. Effective planning requires other things of the supervisor besides constant practice. There are definite abilities the supervisor must develop in himself before he can plan effectively for his department and his men. These include the following: (1) the ability to see the situation as a whole, (2) the ability to break a problem down into its elements, (3) constructive imagination, versatility, and resourcefulness which will result in the ability to convert old methods into new, (4) an impersonal analytical approach not dominated by personal prejudices,

(5) the ability to measure the effectiveness of a given plan of procedure, and (6) the ability not to become so enmeshed in details that no time remains for planning.

The successful supervisor has developed the ability to plan effectively. The supervisor who expects to advance must develop this ability. It will require study and practice and self-discipline. Planning should not be delayed for a more advantageous time. If it is put off it is likely never to be done. By careful planning, it will not be necessary to put it off, for it will have been scheduled and taken care of accordingly. Planning begins with the supervisor's planning of his own time. Many supervisors say they have so much to do they lack the time to do it all. The supervisor in planning his own time should sit down and, using paper and pencil, should list all his duties, together with their relative importance and the time he needs for each. Then he should divide his working day or week into quarter-hour or half-hour sections. In each of these sections he should schedule one or more of his various tasks. If he needs more time than he has to carry out his tasks he will have to handle this problem the same way he would a scheduling problem in his department, doing first things first, and if necessary, delegating some of his tasks to others. The supervisor should schedule himself on the same basis he uses in scheduling machines, that is, never scheduling 100 per cent of his time. He is better off to schedule himself at 80 to 90 per cent capacity rather than 100 per cent. The supervisor must discipline himself to work to his schedule. When the supervisor has trained himself to *plan his work and work his plan* he is on the way to developing the ability to plan effectively. The supervisor must learn to think and work in an orderly fashion. When he learns to plan his own work and sees the advantages planning affords him, the next step in planning the work of his department will come naturally. The same principles apply, the same methods are used whether the planning is of the supervisor's time, departmental tasks, or institutional programs. Each requires the same abilities which the supervisor will find come only through learning the principles underlying planning and then practicing the application of those principles in daily personal and departmental planning.

CHAPTER VII

TECHNIQUES AND METHODS OF DISCOVERING AND ADJUSTING GRIEVANCES

The discovery and adjustment of grievances. One of the major responsibilities of the supervisor is to discover and adjust grievances. The discovery and adjustment of grievances is essentially a supervisory function. A well-formulated organization with authority and responsibility carefully deputized or delegated is not automatic. It requires supervisory follow-up to detect deviations from the organization pattern and to adjust the deviations before they become truly destructive. Even the supervisor with a well-organized and well-equipped department and with carefully selected employees will meet with grievances among his employees. The supervisor cannot hope to eliminate every grievance yet he can strive to reduce them to a minimum. It is essential that the supervisor is able to recognize grievances and their symptoms and also is prepared to handle them to the best of his knowledge and ability. It is therefore necessary for every supervisor to develop techniques and methods of discovering and adjusting grievances.

Before the supervisor is fully prepared to deal with grievances, he must understand those basic urges of every individual which, when not satisfied in a reasonable degree, will result in discontent and develop into grievances. He must realize that a grievance may not be expressed at first but may only manifest itself in uneasiness or discontent. From the standpoint of group unrest, this is a very important stage. Finally, the supervisor should recognize that the alleged cause of an articulated grievance may not be, and often is not, the real cause of the grievance, but merely a symptom of a basic cause. It is just as essential for the supervisor to know and to understand the human side of his department as to know the mechanics of his equipment. Only when he has the knowledge of what ordinarily lies behind grievances can the supervisor handle those that will develop in his department. Like every other job of the supervisor to develop the skill of adjusting grievances requires time and practice. There are, however, certain techniques of discovering and adjusting grievances that will help the supervisor develop his technique.

What is a grievance? It has been said that a grievance is anything connected with the job that an employee *thinks* or *feels* is wrong. Recognize the meaning of those words "thinks" and "feels." The employee does not need to be right in his ideas or opinions. What is important is that he thinks or feels the way he does. Right or wrong, the grievance should be adjusted to avoid unfortunate consequences and the adjustment should be made promptly as the result of careful planning.

The supervisor will encounter two types of grievances, unarticulated and articulated. *Unarticulated* grievances arise out of the failure of the job to give the employee the satisfaction he desires. *Articulated* grievances are those which have developed to the point where there is open protest either to the supervisor or to fellow employees or others. Unarticulated grievances may be recognized by such employee actions as indifference and day-dreaming, absenteeism, tardiness, irritability, and falling off in production or, in a learner, the failure to increase production in keeping with his progress and training. Manifestations of articulated grievances include in addition to the above gossiping, active criticism and argumentation, increased labor turnover, carelessness in the use of tools and materials, untidy housekeeping around the workplace, jealousy, loafing on the job, and poor workmanship.

What does the employee expect? Every employee has certain basic desires which he expects his job to satisfy. When the job does not satisfy the employee's desires the basic causes for grievances are being established; his work will suffer and grievances will grow in importance. The desires which bring satisfaction include: (1) satisfaction of such physical needs as food, shelter, and clothing, (2) security against disease, accidents, layoffs, and old age, (3) recognition by fellow employees and superiors, (4) service, a feeling that what he does is worth while, (5) loyalty to persons, institutions, and causes, a feeling of "belonging," (6) craftsmanship, the desire to produce something tangible and of which he can be proud, and (7) the opportunity for advancement.

Nowhere is it more important than in handling grievances that the supervisor must be a good practical industrial psychologist. This is essentially a matter of knowing how and why individuals act the way they do.

What the supervisor needs to know. Anyone can recognize a grievance after it has burst into full bloom and trouble has arisen, but to recognize it in its first stage, oftentimes before the man himself realizes he has a grievance, to catch and settle the unarticulated grievances, this is the mark of the skillful and successful supervisor. Detecting

unarticulated grievances requires constant contact, observation, and study of the employees and their work and an understanding of those motivating forces underlying the actions of the individual and the group. *Know your men* is a first requirement of every supervisor before he can begin to detect and adjust grievances successfully.

Danger signals arise and the supervisor must be on the alert to receive them. He must know the factors that lead to grievances and possess an understanding of human nature and how it works. The supervisor will find his knowledge of individual differences [1] especially valuable in handling grievances. Although it is wise to take care of a grievance as soon as any manifestation of it is found, it is still necessary to pause, analyze, and plan before attacking it. As for other problems, it is necessary to *get the facts.* The supervisor must analyze the causes that lie behind the manifestation of a grievance. Is it plant conditions, is it due to conditions outside the job, is it the employee himself? What does the supervisor want to accomplish, what is his objective in terms not only of the employee with the grievance, but the department as a whole and the company as well? What is the best solution and what other solutions are there? Sometimes the easiest solution for the employee and the supervisor is not practical owing to other conditions. The supervisor must understand the company policies, his department personnel, and the employee with the grievance before establishing his objective and determining what is the best solution. Many a small grievance has developed into a man-sized one, many an individual grievance has grown into a group grievance, because a supervisor has made a hasty analysis or none at all and, without all the facts and without a plan, has tried to settle the grievance of an employee. Many a grievance temporarily settled has created new ones because the supervisor did not have in his mind a clearly defined objective designed both to settle the particular grievance and to avoid creating conditions among his employees that would lead to the development of other grievances.

Both in detecting and adjusting grievances the supervisor must understand the factors that govern the actions of an individual. He needs an understanding of how individuals act and what causes these actions in order to recognize the manifestations of a grievance and likewise in planning the solution and putting it into effect. How an individual acts depends on the kind of person he is. No two people are entirely the same. Different individuals react in entirely different ways to similar sets of circumstances. The supervisor must recognize

[1] See Chapter VIII, page 67.

this fact and understand what the factors are that influence the action of the individual.[2] It is easy to overlook the many factors and conditions that may be the basic cause underlying a grievance. What an individual is and why he acts in a certain way can be divided into four classifications: (1) what the individual *really* is, (2) what he would *like* to be, (3) what he would *like to have others think he is,* and (4) what *others really think* he is.

The kind of person an employee really is depends on his sentiments, his beliefs, and his convictions. If an employee has certain beliefs that have developed because of his religion or environment, it will only increase the supervisor's problem if he tries suddenly to change the man's beliefs. What an employee is depends on his past experience, his present condition, and his future outlook. The kind of work he has done and the supervision under which he has worked have definitely contributed to molding his character. His contacts with others outside his work, in his home and school life—all are factors in the development of his character. The supervisor must recognize this and analyze the employee before attempting to adjust any grievance he may have or that may be developing. An employee's present condition, the job he is on, his outside life, are at the moment making changes in the kind of person he is. His future outlook, on the job, in his family life, and in his community affect the kind of person he is and the way he acts and thinks. If he sees a bright future ahead, he is less likely to develop a grievance than is the man who sees little future prospects for advancement. Physical traits contribute to what an employee is. His health may result in certain reactions on his part. Skills he possesses, such as unusual manual dexterity, may influence his attitudes and frequently unusual physical characteristics, such as height and weight, may have affected his character development.

The supervisor must consider the employee in the light of what that employee would like to be. This may be influenced by his status in his work group and in his community. Many an employee's actions are the result of what he would *like* to be. As an illustration, some people are excessively aggressive in their contacts with others. The "lone wolf" type of employee, when analyzed, is frequently found not to be that kind of person by choice. His actions are often the result of other conditions and the employee so characterized frequently is found to be a person who would *like to be* one of the group.

The employee must be studied from the viewpoint of what he *would*

[2] See chart on page 156 of Chapter XIV.

like others to think he is. Many an employee wants his fellow employees to think of him as an entirely different kind of person from the one he actually is. An employee will frequently go out of his way to impress others. He is anxious to have them develop a definite opinion about him. Many people deliberately set out to sell themselves to others and in so doing create problems for the supervisor.

The supervisor must also consider what fellow employees really think the employee is. Consideration of this viewpoint is essential because the employee is part of the group and the group will judge the solution of the grievance in the light of what they think of the employee. Frequently, the group knows the employee better than the supervisor does. The supervisor needs some of this knowledge of the employee before he can successfully detect and adjust grievances. It is all a part of knowing and understanding his employees. It is essential to know what the employee really is in order to understand his grievances and the conditions causing it. Understanding what the employee would like to be and what he would like to have others think him to be is necessary in order to choose the solution and to plan how to put it into effect. What others really think he is plays an important part in determining the objective or adjusting the grievance and the solution, because the employee is only a part of a group of employees and the supervisor must realize that his objective and solution must be in terms of the group action as well as in terms of the employee's reaction.

Although the foregoing may sound like a great deal of unnecessary information merely to adjust a grievance of an employee, remember that the human being is a complicated piece of mechanism, both physically and mentally. Many a supervisor will spend hours analyzing the machinery in his department, studying or making drawings of machine parts and tools, yet he will spend only a few minutes with an employee settling what he thinks is some slight grievance. Mechanical machinery is easily adjusted and kept running smoothly compared with human machinery. There is no best way for determining and repairing man troubles and no one lubricant that will make human machinery run efficiently. Employees react in far more varied ways than do machines and are a great deal more difficult to understand. The supervisor must recognize the need for more intense study of his men and then follow up by actually studying them until he can very nearly anticipate their actions.

Steps for the supervisor to take. Every supervisor should develop a pattern for detecting and adjusting grievances. Such a pattern, however, must be flexible in order to meet unexpected situations. The

following six-step approach has been found successful by many supervisors: (1) observing the employees and their work, (2) recognition of the factors that are danger signals, indicating difficulties, (3) analyzing these factors to determine causes, (4) selecting the most likely solution in the light of the objective to be attained, (5) planning the attack to put this solution into effect, and (6) putting it into effect.

Observing employees and their work. The supervisor must constantly keep in mind the need for frequent and regular observation of his men. He will find certain keys he can use to open the door to fuller understanding of the employee. These keys include the physical traits, the work performance, the group status, the social participation, the emotional stability, and the personal adjustment of the employee to his work situation. Among the physical traits the supervisor should observe in his employee are individual weaknesses or defects, individual superiorities, health, and any other unusual physical characteristics. In the work performance of the employee the supervisor will watch closely the quantity and quality of work as well as the uniformity of the work. Here the supervisor will regularly check the production records of the employee. The supervisor will observe the employee in the work group. He will watch how the employee fits into the group, the character of his job, and personal characteristics that influence the group toward the employee, whether the employee is a leader or a follower, and if others seek the advice of the individual employee. The supervisor will note the employee's participation in the group activities. Is he a "lone wolf" or is he a part of the group? What are the employee's desires with respect to the group—if he is a "lone wolf" would he actually like to be part of the group, is he an insignificant group member with the desire to be a leader? The supervisor will note how stable, emotionally, the individual employee is. He will know if the employee is supersensitive, if he flies off the handle easily, or if he is even tempered. The supervisor will be familiar with the personal adjustment that the employee has made to his work situation. He will know something about the employee's past, the kind of positions held and the money earned. He will know the wage standards for the job the employee is now on and whether the employee has adjusted himself to his present wage scale. He knows if the employee has been recognized as he expects to be and as his ability merits, and watches the employee's activity in making suggestions or criticism. The successful supervisor has all these keys at his disposal when he has carefully studied an employee. One or more of them ordinarily will unlock the solution to any grievances the supervisor may discover the employee has.

Recognizing the danger signals. It is important to point out the need for the supervisor to keep his employees under constant observation and the need for immediately recognizing the changes in the work or attitudes of any individual employee. For example, a supervisor has carefully observed one of his employees. He knows that the employee is regular in his work habits, is always on time, and works steadily turning out work of uniform quantity and quality. He also knows that this employee is recognized by his fellow employees as a skillful worker whose advice is frequently sought by others, regarding both their work and their personal problems. The department is large and a number of new employees have recently entered it. This employee becomes grouchy and irritable; instead of frequently coming to the supervisor with small suggestions, he avoids him; he goes to the washroom more frequently than usual. Here the good supervisor will immediately detect the beginning of a grievance. The employee has not yet voiced it; he may not be sure in his own mind what the trouble is, but the storm signals are waving and the supervisor should dig in and search for the causes.

Identifying the causes. There are certain considerations the supervisor must keep in mind when he takes the next step in handling grievances, that of identifying the causes of grievances. Fundamentally, he must recognize that personalities are involved, those of the employees and of himself. Employee reactions are largely personal; relatively few employees are able to take an impersonal approach. This is the supervisor's job, and it takes a true executive to be able to keep the personalities out of the situation and take a really impartial view. Employees are almost entirely influenced by both the personal reactions of their associates and their supervisor. What the rest of the employees will think guides the individual employee's actions. As the supervisor has acted toward the employee, so will the employee react toward the supervisor. The supervisor must remember that the employee's sentiments and feelings are fairly stable over a considerable period of time. The supervisor's success is almost entirely dependent upon his ability to identify and understand these sentiments and feelings of the employee. It is not enough to set the employee straight on the facts. If these facts do not square with the sentiments of the employee the supervisor has not only wasted his time but also created another problem for himself.

Factors to be considered by the supervisor. The greater responsibility rests on the supervisor to recognize what is wrong, to be impartial, and, above all, to make a decision that squares with the em-

ployee's sentiments and feelings, with the company's policies, with the group attitudes—the decision must be fair to all concerned.

As the third step in discovering and adjusting grievances, the supervisor must consider certain factors in selecting the plan for solving grievances. He must remember as he plans his solution that it must conform to the present policies and practices of his company, while he also keeps in mind that precedents are easily established and hard to disestablish. He will recognize that although grievances must be adjusted on an individual basis, the individual action has a group influence and must conform to the group's idea of fair play. Favoritism by the supervisor will not be tolerated by the group. Too often the supervisor fails to look ahead and, as he concentrates on settling the individual problem, he creates a group grievance where only an individual one existed before.

The supervisor must remember that it is not his function to remake an employee but rather to bring about an easy and natural relation between the employee's mind and the series of circumstances that will make for willing cooperative action.[3] To be lasting, the solution to the grievance must strike at the cause. The current grievance may and often is merely a symptom of a more serious grievance. The supervisor will look beyond the current grievance to make sure he is getting at the source of the irritation. Many an employee is a chronic complainer. As fast as one complaint is settled, another arises. Here is a sure indication that the source of the trouble has been missed. There is something deep-seated to be attacked rather than a minor complaint.

For every difficulty giving rise to grievances one of two situations exists: (1) something is present that should not be, (2) something is lacking that should be present. Either or both of the above may relate to the work, the employee, work environment, or any combination of all three.

Some common solutions. Some of the common solutions to grievances which should be at the supervisor's fingertips include: (1) information or knowledge of the basic cause, (2) an explanation which must be made immediately, not weeks hence, (3) sympathy for the individual in particular and men in general, (4) reassurance that things are not as imagined by the aggrieved employee, (5) recognition of the personality and worth of the individual, (6) training of the

[3] Much of the material in this paragraph is adapted from General Motors Executive Training Program G-9 "Better Personnel Relations," Chapter IV. This entire chapter is influenced by this pamphlet published by the General Motors Corporation.

employee when needed, (7) help for the employee in facing the realities of the given situation, (8) solution for private problems, (9) a firm hand to give direct orders when needed, (10) replacement at times—all men cannot be readjusted, (11) change of physical environment, (12) medical aid, (13) any combination of two or more of the foregoing.

The need for planning. An essential in successful adjustment of grievances is the planning of the solution. Only trouble awaits the supervisor who dives headlong into the situation. The advantage of planning is that it reduces the likelihood of making a bad situation worse. It gives the supervisor an opportunity to select the time and place to make the adjustment. By careful planning the supervisor can devote his time to putting the plan into effect and will not be handicapped by attempting to solve a grievance without having prepared for it. In planning his solution, the supervisor has an opportunity to put his emphasis on securing the employee's desire to "buy" the program and not to feel that he has been "sold" something against his will. After the supervisor has carefully planned the approach to adjusting the grievance he should apply sound sales methods in putting the plan across. He will have due regard for the time and place to introduce the subject. He will show the advantages of the solution. He will get the employee to suggest the solution, if possible. Remember "face-saving" is important to every employee. He will give the reasons for the claimed advantage. Finally, he will secure acceptance which will come easily, if he succeeds in getting the employee to suggest the solution.

Careful planning enables the supervisor (1) to know what to do or say, (2) to know why it is to be said or done, (3) to know how it is to be said or done. Planning that involves the *what, why,* and *how* will usually be successful. In the last analysis the supervisor will remember that few employees are fluent talkers. Many an employee has wanted to say something, but did not know what he wanted to say or how to say it. The good supervisor, as part of his technique of detecting and adjusting grievances, is a good listener.[4] Making it easy for the employee to talk to you contributes to both detecting and adjusting grievances.

[4] *Management and the Worker* by F. J. Roethlisberger and William J. Dickson, published by the Harvard University Press, 1940, has provided the inspiration for much of the material in this chapter.

CHAPTER VIII

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES, GROUP ATTITUDES, AND GROUP MORALE

The tools of leadership. One of the goals of every supervisor is his recognition by management and his men as a *good leader.* The ability to lead men is essential to a successful supervisor, and inherent in this ability is a knowledge of individual differences, group attitudes, and group morale as well as a knowledge of their effect on the work of his department and the ways in which he can use them in directing and controlling his men. These are the tools of leadership, but to use them effectively requires not only knowledge and understanding but also purposeful practice to develop skill in their application. Leadership, like other phases of supervision, does not come easily to some men but only after long study and painstaking practice. The supervisor can strengthen and develop his leadership by: (1) recognizing the nature and extent of individual differences; (2) recognizing their influence on the actions of men; (3) observing the increased effectiveness resulting from taking advantage of individual differences in getting work done; (4) understanding the nature and method of the functioning of group attitudes and morale; and (5) understanding the influence of the group attitude and morale upon individual members of the group.

Individual differences. Since group attitudes and morale are largely a collection of individual attitudes and morale, some general considerations concerning individual differences must be considered first. A good mechanic recognizes that materials have different characteristics and although the same useful product may be made from different materials, the work involved or the time required in one instance may be twice as great in one case as in another. As materials differ, *so do individuals.* They differ physically, mentally, and emotionally. They differ in race and sex, in education and environment. There are many ways, great and small, in which individuals differ from each other.

Individuals have different I.Q.'s (intelligence quotients, scores measuring the mental ability and capacity of individuals), and although a skilled mechanic may be developed out of a man with an I.Q. of 90 as well as one with a score of 110, as a rule, the time required and

the methods used will be radically different in the two cases. The supervisor does not usually know the I.Q. of his men, but he must, nevertheless, recognize the need for a different approach with different individuals. The supervisor who studies his men will develop the ability to measure them, their alertness, and their ability to learn, and in a sense will measure their mental capacities.

As men differ mentally so they also differ physically. One of the best examples of the physical differences in men is in height and weight. People differ in sex although these differences have been magnified out of all proportion and are not so important as we often think they are. Most of the differences in the performances of the sexes are differences growing out of training. There are racial differences, but again these are not as great as once thought. Evidence collected and analyzed during the First World War indicated that racial differences are not so great as differences growing out of environment and training. Most of the racial differences thought to exist have arisen from our present social system. Differences in the senses of sight, feel, touch, taste, and smell exist. There are many industries where one or more of these senses are very important assets to employees on certain jobs. The work of inspectors requires a high degree of the sense of touch and sight whereas certain other occupations require a highly developed sense of smell. Everyone does not possess these senses to the same degree. Individuals differ in their susceptibility to disease and in their general health. Although one individual may be affected by a chemical present in the product being worked on, others may not be affected at all. The development of a knowledge of allergies during the past few years has shown distinctly that some individuals are highly susceptible to things that have no effect on others. The supervisor must be on the lookout for such instances and promptly bring them to the attention of the medical department.

Individuals differ in motor reaction and coordination. Individuals vary in their ability to coordinate the use of hands, eyes, and body in doing physical work. Many supervisors have had experiences both with those who just cannot coordinate, who are naturally awkward and require more than the average amount of practice, and with others who have coordination ability in a high degree. The supervisor will take these differences into consideration in assigning work and instructing his men.

The supervisor will also find emotional differences among his employees. There are differences in maturity; some men are old at thirty-five and others are young at fifty. The man who went to work

when he finished high school is usually more mature at twenty-three than is the man who graduated from college before entering the industrial world. From the standpoint of the supervisor, the lack or presence of emotional stability in individuals is exceedingly important, and widespread differences are found in this respect. The supervisor will have men under him who are emotionally unstable. It will therefore be necessary for him to know what causes them to be upset so that, if possible, he may take steps to prevent this occurring. Of course it must be remembered that there is no place in modern industry for some severe cases of emotional instability.

Individuals are found to vary to a greater extent in mental and emotional differences than in physical differences. It is unusual to find a man twice as tall or heavy as another, but it is common to find persons with as wide or wider differences than two-to-one in mental capacities. The degrees of emotional stability and maturity between individuals are likewise found to vary tremendously.

Outstanding ways in which men differ. There are fundamental principles which the supervisor must keep in mind in controlling and guiding his employees. These principles apply in all instances whether it is promotion or transfer, job assignments or discharge, disciplinary action, or whatever action may be necessary. *One individual differs from another in those personal aptitudes, those special abilities with which he is equipped and which he is able to contribute to the company in exchange for his salary.* Some individuals have an aptitude for details and work well on job assignments requiring a large amount of follow-up whereas others, full of enthusiasm but disliking the details, are best suited to get work started and to leave the follow-up of details to others.

Individuals differ in interest and motive and respond best to varying stimuli. The young man in the department who is just married is anxious to succeed and advance and will accept promotion, even though it may involve taking a chance, because it will increase his earnings and improve his standing among his friends. The older employee on the other hand who is more interested in job security may even turn down a promotion which will involve more responsibility and the possibility of failure and discharge. The younger man will sometimes respond more readily to opportunities to learn and advance than the older man for whom other methods of motivation will have to be used.

The same individual changes from day to day and from year to year in ability and interests, both in degree and kind. The man who

could perform an operation best a year ago frequently is not the best man in the department on that work today. Someone else has studied, worked hard, and surpassed him. Men who last year were interested in advancing into a more skilled occupation as from machine operator to machinist later may be found to have changed their interests to office work, such as drafting. Men's interests change owing to their associations both without and within the company. Many a young man when he joins a company wants to follow the same trade as his father or brother and a year later, because of his outside contacts with men of his own age, will decide to attend evening school and follow a path to some entirely different occupation. This is true not only of younger men, but also of older ones. The influence of membership in professional societies or trade unions will often work a slow but definite change in the interests of the older man who last year was interested only in working his way up to the top, and now is interested only in security and higher wages.

Different kinds of work require different personal abilities in the individuals who are to perform them. The routine job in the department should be filled by the man who likes routine; the job requiring contacts with other departments, such as pushing production or chasing parts, should go to the man with persistence and personality, who talks well, likes people, and yet underneath has a tenacious streak with a determination to get it done.

Granting equal ability, different kinds of work are best done by persons who temperamentally are particularly interested in them. Every supervisor has had the experience of putting a man on a job, of having him fail utterly, and then of transferring him to another job on which he was very successful. Many men have been failures at one type of work and outstanding successes at another. The answer usually is that the individual was not temperamentally suited to the work at which he failed.

The work in each position in a company changes as time goes on; duties are added and taken away. Sometimes the change is negligible, sometimes it is great. In the measure in which it takes place, a similar change is likely to take place in the abilities and interests the work requires. The supervisor who has been in charge of his department for several years seldom realizes that these changes take place, since they often develop slowly and by small degrees. Comparison of a job of three years ago with the same job today will probably reveal a formerly unnoticed change. The speed with which the job is done may have changed, the tolerances may vary, the methods may have changed, in fact, it may even be done on a different machine or in a

different way. Many a skilled machinist's job has been turned into a production job over a period of time and the man on it originally is no longer fitted for production work, yet there is an ideal spot to use him in the tool room and take advantage of his special skills which the job he is now on no longer demands.

Changes in environment have a tremendous influence on men. This is true whether it is a change in the work environment or the social environment of the employee. The conditions under which an individual works, his relationships with his fellow employees and his supervisor, the opportunities he sees in his job, all influence an individual's production and consequently the production of the group. The social environment of an employee, his home surroundings, the people with whom he mingles exercise a tremendous influence on personal and group efficiency. When employees are transferred from one department to another with a change in supervisors, there is often a perceptible change in the employee's production and attitude. When an employee is a "lone wolf" and shies away from other employees in the department, the result will frequently be noted in production. The same happens when a group ostracizes an individual employee in the department. The subsequent lowered production may be such that it will be necessary to transfer the employee to another department. Until recently the importance of social environment on the individual and his work has not been recognized.[1] Personnel men are now coming to realize the impact of social environment on industrial efficiency and a few large companies are taking steps to attack this problem.

The young man who starts to evening school and associates with ambitious young men will suddenly begin to develop himself for a higher position and will look for opportunities in his company. Every supervisor should study and understand the infinite combinations possible in social and work environmental changes in his employees which will affect their work and their relations with him. Here is one more reason why the supervisor must know his men, study their activities and outside interests, and keep up to date on the interests and activities of each.

The foregoing principles are fundamentals that the supervisor will find apply constantly to his men and in their relationships with him. He must take into consideration all the factors that cause men to act as they do and especially the individual differences in each of his men.

Special interests, desires, and abilities of individuals. The supervisor will find his employees differ one from another in their interests,

[1] See Roethlisberger and Dickson, *Management and the Worker*, Harvard University Press, 1940, for a comprehensive discussion of this subject.

desires, and abilities. Men differ as to the wages they desire and their reactions to overtime. Some men will try to earn all the money they can, but others are satisfied with a moderate wage and are more interested in other incentives, such as security and type of work to which they are assigned. Some men will fight for all the overtime they can get, and others want to quit at the end of eight hours and head for home and their families. To these men, their home life is more important than the increase in the pay envelop resulting from overtime work. Men vary as to which shift they prefer. Most men like the day shift; others prefer to work the second or even the third shift. Frequently outside interests are found to be the reason for shift preferences.

Individuals vary in their preferences for working conditions. Individuals vary in their reactions to working conditions. Many men prefer white collar work and will even accept lower wages rather than go into the factory. There are other men who like the atmosphere of the factory, the hum of the machines, and who have no desire or interest in "pushing a pencil." Under some conditions, such as when factory wages rise and white collar wages do not follow, but there are increases in the cost of living, white collar workers seek to move into factories, and during such times the supervisor will be wise to study the interests of his new employees and take advantage of any special abilities of these men. One may be found that will make a good production clerk, another can take the responsibility for record keeping off the supervisor's shoulders. The successful supervisor will study each new employee, determining his interests, abilities, and aptitudes and will find the job for which he is best suited.

There are many incentives which the supervisor can use to good advantage to motivate the individuals concerned. The supervisor will find that in using these incentives to get results, selecting the incentive based on the individual differences between his men will bring greater results. One man may be appealed to through his desire for increased responsibility, another through an opportunity to keep records or make a special study, and yet another by transfer to work that pays a higher wage.

Individuals differ in education and this influences the manner in which the supervisor will issue orders and give instructions to them. With a group most of whom never reached high school he will not resort to a typewritten notice on the bulletin board, or if he does, he will put it in the simplest possible language. He will make his instructions detailed and then explain them fully. The supervisor who

has a group of youngsters fresh out of college can make his instructions shorter and more explicit, for he will find they will catch on faster since they have become accustomed to brief, concise instructions.

Mental and emotional differences. Mental capacity is largely the result of biological inheritance. Little can be done about it other than to train the individual to use what he has to its maximum effectiveness.[2] Yet the supervisor can go a long way in helping his men, through training, to capitalize on what they have. Sometimes men are found who have latent possibilities that have been neglected or overlooked by the supervisor. Many a employee has been judged by the supervisor to lack backbone, yet when given some additional responsibilities that person develops determination and persistence which he was thought to lack. The capacities of many men in his department are far greater than most supervisors realize. He puts them on a job and judges their abilities by their performance there. Although the psychological tests available cannot be used by most supervisors, and their results if used are not made available to him, yet he can play safe by not forming snap judgments or misjudging men on limited evidence of their performance on a single job.

Partly as a result of training, partly as a result of environment, and partly because of temperamental characteristics men vary in their likes and dislikes. Some men like painstaking detailed work; others dislike details intensely. Some men prefer to work with the group; others want to work alone. Some men are anxious to be leaders in their group; others are natural followers. Some men are found who like to work with their hands; others want to work with figures or push a pencil. Some men want to create; others want to develop ideas. Some people are versatile and answer all the above descriptions and can do things they do not particularly like when the remuneration is sufficiently high to justify it. Some men who prefer to work with machinery have become successful salesmen, not because they liked selling especially, but because they had versatility and were susceptible to the money urge.

The emotional differences are largely the result of the functioning of the vital organs. Stomach trouble has affected the disposition of many an employee and many a supervisor. Illness, when it becomes chronic, will have a definite effect on the work of men. Periodic physical examinations have done much to eliminate emotional disturb-

[2] Special studies at the University of Iowa have cast a little doubt upon this statement, yet for all practical purposes it still holds.

ances but they are not the entire cure. Anger when it occurs frequently may be the result of organic difficulties such as high blood pressure. Nervous disturbances lead to emotional differences between men that must be taken into consideration by the supervisor both in his own relations with his men and in the relations among the men themselves. When the supervisor has been out late the night before and comes in tired and wishing he had stayed home or had come home earlier, he also must beware that he does not let his physical condition influence his actions toward his men. The saying so common, "He got out of bed on the wrong side this morning," has more truth and a greater effect than most supervisors believe.

Emotional differences of children differ from those who have reached maturity, and the wise supervisor will treat his men as mature persons, not as children. The saying that human beings are like children is false and following this belief will only lead the supervisor to trouble. It is true that some people never mature, but they are few, and the supervisor must single out such individuals and again recognize the doctrine of individual differences and apply it. The supervisor will find that just as he expects to be treated by his superiors so do his men expect to be treated by him—given reasons for actions, receive explanations, be talked to as adults with ordinary common sense. The supervisor will find some people who have emotional balance save in one particular item as, for example, religion. They will be emotionally balanced except when this subject is raised and then they will become completely unbalanced and unable to see any side other than their own. Some men are found who are perfectly balanced except for a pet topic such as politics or wages. In these instances the supervisor who understands his men and recognizes their individual characteristics will avoid discussion of such subjects and will see that the other members of the group do likewise; otherwise the work of the individual and the whole department will be affected and for no good reason.

Causes of individual differences. Some of the causes of individual differences include sex, age, education, maturity, race, family, and training. Individual differences growing out of sexual differences are basically rather slight but very real. Size and strength are important and every supervisor must beware of putting a woman on a job which is too heavy for her. Job analyses frequently bring out elements in a job which slow it down because of one operation in it that requires strength greater than a woman has, yet a woman will be found on the work. Jobs that involve reaching high shelves are best suited to men or else call for changes in layout. Most differences between men

and women, however, outside of height, weight, and strength, are the result of social training and the individual's outlook on life due to training.

Individual differences grow out of differences in ages of the supervisor's employees. Middle-aged persons tire less easily but require longer to recover from fatigue. However, they have fewer accidents, they are more tolerant of both supervisors and subordinates, their greater experience gives increased wisdom, and they are more regular in attendance. In youth there is a tendency to learn quickly but younger employees have more accidents. The younger men are less regular in attendance and have a higher labor turnover, but they are eager to learn and far more willing to try new and experimental methods than are older men. The age group of fifty-five and over have fewer accidents than either of the other groups, but their accidents are more serious. Their physical strength is on the decline and their eyesight is more likely to be defective. They may possess high skills and valuable experience but do not easily adapt themselves to changes or to learning new skills. In the final analysis the effective age of an individual is one of his physical and mental factors not calendar years. A man is young in terms of his physical and mental conditions and not in terms of his calendar years alone.

Individuals differ in *maturity*, which is closely related to age in a well-balanced individual but is not exactly the same thing. Maturity may mean maturity mentally, physically, or emotionally. Ordinarily physically small people mature earlier and develop coordination more rapidly than do large people. Flyweight boxers are not unusual at sixteen, yet it is rare to see a heavyweight boxer under twenty or twenty-one. The supervisor can use this factor to advantage in placing new employees, especially if they are youngsters just out of high school. Climate has considerable influence on emotional maturity; there is also a relationship between age and emotional maturity; however, it is not so close a relationship as that with other factors such as environment, training, and experience.

Marked racial differences have been discovered, but it is possible if all other things were equal that racial differences would be slight. But those other things *are different* and therefore the supervisor is faced with the fact that there are individual differences between races. Traditions, customs, social inheritance and economic status definitely do produce individual differences. Chinese, Indians, Negroes, and others have all developed individual characteristics as a group.

The supervisor will meet individual differences as a result of differences in education among his men. Employees will be found to

differ in their education; some may even be unable to read or write whereas others will have college degrees. Some may have attended evening school and their educational background may be somewhat more practical than those who have not. Today the older supervisor is faced with a group of men who, in general, are better educated than those he handled a few years ago. He must recognize this and take it into consideration in handling his men.

Training results in individual differences. Given two persons who receive identical training but who are not given an incentive to absorb the training, and at the end of the training period the differences between them will be about the same as at the beginning. The same training will not increase the individual differences between men unless there is a strong incentive present and then the training will markedly intensify the differences. Unlike training for two men may account not only for different individual performances but also different attitudes. Two men given different training under different men may develop entirely different results. Some individual differences are natural and can be changed very little by training. This is especially true of some of the physical traits.

Family and environment contribute to the development of individual differences. Men having a common inheritance are usually much more alike than unlike. Men coming from the same kind of environment or home background are likely to be similar in their characteristics. Again this is one more reason why the supervisor must inquire into and understand the background and social environment of his men, their interests and amusements, something about their home life, and the other kinds of work they have done. The supervisor will find that all these factors contribute to individual differences between employees.

Methods of detecting individual differences. There are several ways of detecting individual differences including the traditional interview, standardized tests, actual job performance, and the use of records. For a long time the personal interview has been one of the chief ways of detecting individual differences. Men pride themselves on their ability to judge individuals by their appearance and by the answers to a few questions asked and answered orally. Scientific tests have shown how utterly unreliable this method is. *No supervisor should rely entirely on his personal ability to size up men by interviewing or talking with them.* Standardized tests that have been developed, tried out, and verified are available today and many supervisors know that their employment department is using these tests. The successful supervisor will recognize the value of such tests, and use the facts or

scores from these tests as part of his information about his men. It is to the advantage of the supervisor when such scores, or at least groupings, are made available to him. *Actual job performance is the best method for measuring individual differences but only on the specific job.* All too often performance on one job will result in a man's selection for another job on which he does very poorly. A supervisor would not ordinarily take a man who has done a good job as a machine operator and make him a production clerk in the department without determining if the man has not only the ability to run a machine but also the ability to handle figures and records accurately, if he has the educational background for the clerical work, if he is skilled in or has the capacity and willingness to cooperate with others. Yet how often do we see a man promoted from a good setup man or operator to assistant foreman!

The need of records has been emphasized before. It is essential where large numbers of men are concerned that the company and its supervisors must have and use records to carry out the necessary actions in dealing with the individuals working in the company and under each supervisor. Records recall to the supervisor facts which he may have forgotten; they give him an overall and detailed picture of his men. They are one of the most revealing tools the supervisor has in detecting individual differences in his men. Such records may include time cards, production records in terms of quantity and quality, even broken down by hours, attendance, accidents, earnings if the employees are on piecework or incentive wage plans, and merit ratings.

Some conclusions on individual differences. There are some fundamental conclusions that have grown out of the study of individual differences and every supervisor should be familiar with these conclusions and use them in the handling of his men. *Men differ in nearly all respects yet they have many things in common.* These differences are a matter of degree and detail. Successful placement of men and their handling should take into consideration these individual differences. *Mental and emotional differences are considerably greater than physical differences* and in modern industry these mental and emotional differences are immeasurably more important than physical differences. *The traditional methods of detecting individual differences are not reliable* and more accurate aids to sound judgment are available. One of the greatest deterrents to the use of known techniques is the commonplace attitude on the part of each man that he is a good judge of human nature. *Not all differences between men can be eliminated by training.* As a general rule in industry men can best be handled on an individual basis and whenever possible the

supervisor should handle his men as individuals. However, when individual adjustments are neglected the individual grievance may readily become a group grievance with all its complications and difficulties in adjustment. *Individual differences require careful consideration in the development of constructive discipline.*

The supervisor and individual differences. The greatest lesson every supervisor can draw from a consideration and understanding of individual differences is the value of knowing his men and then of applying his knowledge of their individual differences. A good supervisor nearly always can handle any one of his men and win his point with the man, but when he tries to handle his men as a group, no matter how careful he is, the group may have several individuals in it who are each almost as alert as the supervisor and collectively can talk him down. Different members of the group are likely to talk at the same time, argument may result, and the point at issue which the supervisor wished to make with his men is lost. Many a supervisor has called a group meeting and after it was over spent more time straightening out the results growing out of the meeting than the time it would have taken him to contact each of his men individually. The advantages of handling men on an individual basis far outweigh the disadvantages. When the supervisor talks to his men as a group he loses the advantage of using the individual differences in each man to put across his point.

Every supervisor has faced the problem of putting over to his men the need for increased departmental production. The worst way to attempt to do this is to call the men together and tell them what is necessary and how to achieve it. If the supervisor handles his men on an individual basis he will explain to each man the requirements and the reasons behind them and then use the incentive best suited to that individual's characteristics to stimulate him to increased output. His explanation to each may vary, his instructions certainly will, his methods of discipline and measures of winning cooperation from each individual may vary. The supervisor who learns to know his men, to recognize their individual differences, and to apply this knowledge in handling them individually will seldom resort to the old-fashioned methods of supervising his group. This does not mean that there are not occasions where meetings with his group are successful, but such occasions are the exception, difficult to handle, and must be planned carefully in advance as will be shown later in this section.

The supervisor cannot expect training to eliminate all the individual differences in his men. Too often supervisors expect training pro-

grams to work miracles with their departments. Training is essential, it must be used, but in its use the supervisor must recognize the doctrine of individual differences. The supervisor can improve his instruction and training of his men if he will tailor them to the differences in his men. Any training program that does not take into consideration individual differences will meet with little success.

Supervisors recognize easily the physical differences in their men but they are prone to overlook the mental and emotional differences which are so much greater. The first are easily observed, the latter come only as a result of study and analysis of his men. Recognizing mental differences is not sufficient, the supervisor must come to understand them and see how he can use them to his and the company's as well as the individual's best advantage. Industrial conditions today bring these mental and emotional differences to the surface more rapidly than in the past and if the supervisor does not recognize this and handle them properly outside organizations will avail themselves of the opportunity and the result will be that the supervisor's problems of handling these differences will be increased.

Every supervisor must recognize and suppress his desire to judge men only on the basis of a personal talk with them. In many large companies today the supervisor can avail himself of staff assistance in the personnel department to judge men through tests and records. He can ask for assistance from the personnel department in solving difficult problems involving social maladjustment. The supervisor cannot be expected to be an expert psychologist although he can develop himself into a good, practical industrial psychologist. Problems that he recognizes as over his depth he must refer to the personnel department. If instead he just overlooks them, eventually he will have to face them as group problems rather than as the problem of only one individual. With his knowledge of the work in his department, the requirements of each position together with a knowledge of the individual differences of his men, their capacities and interests, he should be able to place each man successfully on the work for which he is best suited. Yet every supervisor must overcome the inertia of saying to himself, "What's the difference. I might as well let well enough alone." The natural tendency is to do nothing, but this will inevitably lead to trouble and the successful supervisor is the one who puts his knowledge of his men and his department to work to achieve satisfactory placement of each individual according to the needs of the department, and who utilizes the individual differences of the men to produce a satisfied smoothly operating department.

The individual and the group. The supervisor must know that handling his men as individuals and recognizing their individual differences can never completely eliminate individuals' banding themselves together. When men gather together in groups major problems for the supervisor will develop but men as a group have so many desirable possibilities that the successful supervisor will recognize and cultivate group effort. Although a group is ordinarily thought of as a number of individuals and frequently group problems are approached from the viewpoint of the individuals concerned, actually the group differs in many ways from its individual members. To handle group problems successfully and to use the group as another tool in effective departmental operation the supervisor must understand group attitudes and group morale as distinct yet integral factors in his department. The group has a tremendous effect on the human relations problems in industry. It affects the individual as few other influences do. It both picks up and pushes the individual grievances of its members and is also one of their greatest sources of enjoyment.

The relationship of the individual to the group. In terms of modern society *the group takes precedence over the individual.* Historically the group or tribe came first and only recently has the individual been recognized. The doctrine of the individual's rights and the individual as a separate political entity is comparatively recent historically.

Practically all those characteristics that distinguish man from animals are transmitted by the group and it is doubtful what type of individual would exist in the absence of the social group. The individual is born into a group, lives with a group (although not necessarily the same group) all his life and dies as part of a group. The normal man possesses a group or gregarious instinct and is happiest when part of a group.

Men frequently turn down positions which are promotions because it means they leave a group of which they are a part. *The group changes more slowly than the individual and possesses more stability than the individual.* It takes much longer to change the habits and customs of the group than it does to change those of an individual. In fact groups will frequently continue to act in certain ways long after individual members of the group have tired of the particular action. The group's stability is affected and increased because the group is more permanent than any individual. One individual drops out and another is added, but the major part of the group continues unchanged.

The individual is affected in one way or another by the group with which he works. When the group is contented and productive, the individual will tend to improve his work and bring it up to the group standard, but the individual who becomes part of a dissatisfied group which presents problems to the supervisor will likewise rapidly become difficult to handle. The group is sensitive to the grievances of the individuals forming it and group movements will spring out of the personal and frequently petty irritations of its members. The individual is influenced by the group not only in his work but also in his opinions and ideas. The employee's opinions of his supervisor, the management, and the product he helps to make or sell are influenced by what the group of which he is a part thinks and says.

The group seems to possess certain characteristics that are peculiar to the group and which are *more than the sum total of its members' characteristics.* The action of a mob is usually much greater than the aggregate desires of all the individuals making up the mob. A group is more emotional than its individual members. The group can be led more easily than the individual and is much more susceptible to suggestion than almost any individual in the group. The group is slower to start, its inertia is much greater than that of any individual that is a part of it.

Under the influence of the group stimulus the individual will frequently rise to heights above those to which he can reasonably be expected to rise when operating on his own. This has been illustrated time and again by acts of patriotism during wars, and outstanding performances by average athletes who rise to unexpected performances in a single game. The individual under the influence of the group is effectively controlled by group restraints as well as inspired by group incentives. The individual will rarely go contrary to group desires or mores, yet with the group as an incentive he will frequently surpass himself in output and effort.

The individual is influenced by three kinds of groups of which he is ordinarily a part. He is influenced by his family group. He is definitely influenced by the social group of which he is a part and he is influenced by the industrial group with whom he works. If the industrial group of which he is a part is motivated by strong incentives the group will move toward the company objectives in an orderly fashion. If the supervisor can transmit the company objectives to the group so that these objectives become group objectives, quantity and quality can be achieved with the minimum of supervision on his part.

Some characteristics of group behavior. *The purpose that brings the group together influences the action of the group.* A mob is a

typical illustration of how the purpose of a group influences the group's action. It is rare when a group has gathered to commit an act contrary to law that it is ever deterred from carrying out the intended action because of individual objectives. Even though as they gather their minds are not made up as individuals, the influence of the group purpose welds them together to carry out the group purpose. The actions of groups during labor disturbances which result in damage to buildings and machinery as well as personal injuries to the combatants can definitely be traced to the purpose of the group's assembling rather than to the desires of the individuals before or as they assemble. A mob will often do things of which as individuals they are later ashamed. The well-defined industrial group under effective supervision and motivated by a strong incentive will move toward its objective in an orderly manner. The supervisor who has developed in his group a strong discipline based on a knowledge of the aims of the enterprise and who has created a desire to gain those aims has nothing to worry about, for then the group purpose will guide the individuals that are a part of it, so that each accomplishes his task efficiently.

Well-chosen slogans are effective because they tend to center the efforts of the group upon a definite objective. Companies that develop strong slogans have found them useful, and the supervisor will do well to utilize slogans, preferably those suggested by his men as tools of supervision. A successful slogan must appeal to the group sense of unity—that of belonging. Recall the chant of the section gang on the railroad. With the singing the group in rhythmic action concentrates the energies of its members and accomplishes more than the gang could ordinarily accomplish.

Groups are influenced by fads and fashions when these do not run contrary to the group sentiments and emotions. These fashions can influence the thinking and actions of the group to a high degree. Every supervisor has faced at some time a group of men adopting a fad or fashion which he feels is detrimental. The only way to control such action on the part of the group is to replace the fashion or idea with another. The effectiveness of this replacement, however, will be based on the worth of the idea used to replace the one that is harmful, the source of the new idea, the manner in which it harmonizes or clashes with the sentiments of the group, and the open-mindedness of management to recognize the need for intelligent substitution of new ideas to replace old and harmful ones. No management can combat a group idea or objective with another that the group sees through and recognizes as unsatisfactory. The new idea must be as good or

better than the old one. The supervisor will do well to remember that a perfectly sound idea may be rejected if the group thinks there is an ulterior motive behind it. The most successful way to introduce a new idea is to let the members of the group think it is their own, original with them, and to permit them to make it their own with the supervisor's efforts in the background. The supervisor and management, in developing an idea to combat an unhealthy one that has developed, must remember that the substitute must harmonize with the ideals of the group. Some managements and many old-line supervisors too often forget these last two points: the source of the idea and its acceptability to the group. No new objectives as a replacement of bad practices is likely to succeed unless it meets these two tests.

Group behavior is frequently irrational. Group behavior is irrational to a greater extent than the behavior of the individual. *The group is seldom given to rational thinking* and again the best illustration of this is that of the mob which will commit acts never dreamed of by the individuals who are part of it. Group action is usually influenced by emotional feelings of oneness or opposition. When an individual becomes part of a group he is more likely to follow his emotions than his common sense since the group merges the individual into it and becomes the unit. An idea or statement once taken up by the group grows in force as it circulates and develops. A man relates a personal grievance against his supervisor to another. As it is passed on from one member of the group to another the grievance develops. Group influence on a grievance magnifies it out of all proportion to the original facts. As the story is repeated by the members of the group, it is twisted until the original facts are lost and it becomes eventually a jumble of distortions. This action found in group behavior tends to perpetuate desirable traits as well as undesirable ones and the supervisor can use this trait of the group to good advantage since *he must only sow the proper seeds* and the action of the group will do the rest. *When the supervisor has won the group over to his side the group members are his strongest supporters.*

The supervisor should strive to develop only the desirable group traits. Care in removing individual reasons for complaints and preventing undesirable ideas and actions from starting will protect the group from becoming contaminated with unhealthy ideas and fashions. However, great care must be exercised in the elimination process or the grievance will not be eliminated but will only spread. The supervisor must remember constantly that preventive medicine is more effective than remedial. Even though irrational, group behavior is more continuous than individual behavior; the group is more depend-

able day in and day out and this is a stabilizing influence. While the supervisor will make every effort to handle his men as individuals, striving constantly to avoid antagonizing the group, he should recognize the advantages of the group, and guide it into productive channels. There are times when the supervisor must handle his men as a group and such instances require all his skill and leadership ability.

Methods of influencing the group. Whenever possible the supervisor must avoid the use of force in controlling the group, since force begets force and only requires more supervision to obtain compliance with the order and leaves the group sullen. Force upsets the group emotionally and requires more force to sustain the action. This circular effect in itself becomes destructive. The supervisor, when tempted to fall back on force to win his way, will do well to remember that force is only effective in the presence of the source of the force.

The supervisor should answer all questions arising within the group, if at all possible, and must without fail adjust petty grievances promptly. Wherever it is within his power the supervisor should grant all reasonable requests arising from individuals and the group. When it is not possible to grant the request, all the facts involved in the rejection should be given. It is wise to remember that partial facts promote rumors but that the whole story will usually put the group at ease. The troublemaker should be removed from the group but only after every attempt has been made to adjust him. Great care must be exercised in his removal, for unless the supervisor is extremely careful when removing one troublemaker he will create two more. Sometimes in bad situations that never should have been permitted to develop, whole groups have to be broken up by transfers. The supervisor must prevent the development of groups on the basis of nationality or religion since such grouping often leads to trouble. The supervisor must seek a balance in his group, men of different ages, religions, and nationalities, and fraternal orders making up the group.[3]

The supervisor should study his group of employees to determine what are their objectives and should then direct his efforts to the best of his ability toward helping them to reach their objective. Too often the supervisor labors under the delusion that the primary objective of his men is more money, and, since he cannot increase wages as he thinks they wish, he lets them go their way. Actually their objectives and desires may be far different, ones which he is equipped to provide, but since he lacks knowledge he fails to take the action

[3] The authors are especially indebted to the Executive Training Program of the General Motor Institute for much of the material in this chapter.

within his power which would tie the group to him.[4] No supervisor should ever permit himself to forget that it is his men who make him what he is and that they can destroy him with ease. Without them behind him he is helpless, with them behind him he is a success. To get his men behind him the supervisor must recognize the individual differences among his men and weld them into a well-disciplined group by using the proper methods of controlling and guiding their actions into channels of maximum effectiveness.

[4] See Scott, Clothier, Mathewson, and Spriegel, *Personnel Management*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1941, page 515, for a report on the ranking of employees' interests.

CHAPTER IX

THE SUPERVISOR AS AN INSTRUCTOR

The importance of instructions. Some form of instruction is constantly being carried on in every dynamic enterprise and the importance of the supervisor in the instructional picture cannot be overemphasized. The supervisor is responsible as an instructor because effective instruction is (1) a vital factor in the training of new men, (2) an integral part of introducing new orders, specifications, and procedures to the organization, and (3) a means of up-grading the regular work force to insure the adoption and maintenance of work standards. A supervisor should recognize his responsibility as an instructor from an organizational and management standpoint and the need for his understanding sound principles of instruction.

The degree and extent of the instruction which will take place in the enterprise depends largely upon (1) the character and complexity of the enterprise, (2) the static or dynamic state of business in general and the specific enterprise in particular, (3) the extent of labor turnover within the organization, and (4) the rate of expansion or growth of the particular business (or it may be the rate of retrenchment).

Instruction plays an essential part in the last two of the three main tasks of the supervisor, namely, organizing, deputizing, and supervising. If the supervisor is to deputize with certainty, either one of two conditions must be present: there must exist an organization already trained and indoctrinated in the company's policies, processes, and procedures which presupposes successful earlier instruction; or careful training must be provided to accompany the delegation of responsibility or issuance of instructions. In a continuing organization instruction as a part of deputizing is a function that must constantly be performed from the president down to the lowest ranking employee.

Whenever the supervisor deputizes a person to perform a task for which the supervisor is responsible and gives that person the authority to carry out the assignment, the supervisor should check to see if the person is qualified to carry out the assignment. It is unusual for a supervisor to be able to find a man who can be assigned duties for which he is completely qualified. The supervisor must select someone, however, and in deputizing that person, the supervisor must de-

termine the qualifications lacking and give the individual the necessary instruction along with authority to perform the task. Thus, it is apparent that underlying successful delegation by the supervisor is the need for careful and detailed instructions when the supervisor delegates authority so that the delegated task will be performed in the most efficient manner. Instruction is an essential function in the process of deputizing.

Instruction is likewise essential in supervising. To supervise requires more than mere follow-up to see that functions are being properly performed. Men will be found to fall somewhat short of the desired work standards. Pointing out the deficiency to a man is not sufficient in many instances, and it often becomes necessary to instruct him in the correct method of performing the work. Supervisors know all too well that telling the man what is wrong and letting him find out the right way for himself is a slow and costly process. It costs the company money to hire men and under unemployment compensation it also costs money to let a man go. It is the supervisor's responsibility to hold the labor turnover in his department to a minimum and instruction is an effective tool in carrying out this responsibility. As an instructor, the supervisor must analyze the man's requirements, know the right way to do the work, and teach the employee the proper method until it is learned and the man is producing work of the required quality and in the required quantity.

Old methods are frequently replaced by new and better ones which (1) may be developed by one of the men, (2) may be discovered by the supervisor in his regular line of duty, and (3) may result from research by the methods or research department. In any of the three foregoing situations it is necessary for the supervisor to bring to all his employees the benefits discovered by the few. To do this requires instruction, sometimes difficult instruction, because it involves getting men already doing work one way to change over to a new work method.

The relationship of instruction to production. Production by the supervisor's department is closely related to instruction. The two cannot be separated and production is to a large degree dependent on the quality of instruction. Poor instruction or lack of instruction is reflected in unsatisfactory quantity and quality production by the men. Lack of instruction is also reflected in low morale. Without adequate instruction the supervisor is unable to interpret company policies to the men. The table below illustrates the relationship between production and instruction in the supervisor's work of handling his department.

A COMPARISON OF THE SUPERVISOR'S INSTRUCTIONAL AND PRODUCTION JOB *

	Production Job	Instructional Job
Object	Finished product	Instructed workman
Knows	Nature of product to be turned out	Nature of work to be taught
Analyzes	Details of parts and processes to be assembled and the sequence of operations	Details of operations or steps involved in the instruction job
Determines	Order in which parts are to be assembled and the sequence of operations	Order in which steps are to be taught according to a definite plan
Puts across	Assembly of parts and performance of operations to get the finished product	Instructional job step by step according to the plan
Checks	Finished product	Ability of the workman to perform his job

* Adapted from material developed for the General Motors Executive Training Program by the General Motors Institute.

Methods of instruction. There are two general approaches to instruction, the absorption method and the intentional method. Instruction by absorption is the way most employees have learned their jobs in the past, namely, by being put on their own to sink or swim. Sometimes an older employee was assigned to take an interest in the new man but usually the new man learned for himself by trial and error, by watching others and asking questions since there was no special incentive for the older employee to teach the new man. Instruction by intention is now the planned method of training new men. In the ideal situation every step in learning the job by the new employee has been planned in advance. Modern techniques of instruction are employed and utilized to their fullest extent. The learner is given every opportunity to develop as rapidly as possible and is encouraged at every step. Each method has its advantages and disadvantages as illustrated in the table, page 89; generally speaking, however, the successful supervisor today practices the intentional method of instruction.

What the supervisor must know. If the supervisor is to discharge his responsibility as an instructor, using the intentional method, he must equip himself accordingly. The supervisor must recognize that he has an organizational responsibility for instruction. He must further realize that not only is he responsible for the instruction of his men but it is also necessary for him to meet this responsibility for

A Comparison of the Two Types of Instruction[1]

Unorganized (Absorption) Method		Planned (Intentional) Training	
Advantages	Disadvantages	Advantages	Disadvantages
Calls for initiative of learner	Takes excessive time	Saves time in the end	Requires competent instructor
Develops self-confidence	Makes many mistakes	Right method taught	Takes supervisor's time
Learner retains or remembers	Probably learns wrong method	Mistakes prevented	Requires careful lesson planning
	Material is wasted	More thoroughgoing	
	Costs are excessive	Less danger of accidents	
	Labor turnover is excessive	Develops learner faster	
		Benefits instructor	
		Reduces waste of material	

instruction if he is to operate his department efficiently. The supervisor has several duties when he actually meets his responsibility for instruction. (1) He needs to know the nature and extent of instruction (this again requires that the supervisor know his men, their capacities, and their present skills). (2) He must plan to have the great bulk of the detailed instruction (in a large department) carried out by instructors trained for this specific purpose. In the small department the supervisor will have to do the instructing himself and in the large department he must follow up the instructors, at times controlling and actually giving instruction himself out of his experience. (3) He must know the principles of good instruction and be able to train his instructors in them. He must also supervise and follow up the instructors' work to see that they apply these basic principles of good instruction.

The supervisor must understand the importance of his responsibility for instruction, that his instructional job is on a par with his production job. In fact, production costs may be excessive unless the instructional job is properly performed. Follow-up of the instruction is an essential part of good supervision. Many supervisors overlook the importance of instruction or even if they do see the need for it they

[1] Adapted and reproduced by permission of the publishers, Harper and Brothers, New York, from R. O. Beckman, *How to Train Supervisors*, 1940, page 203.

leave the job and its follow-up to others, when it is definitely the supervisor's responsibility. Since production is dependent on the quality and quantity of instruction every supervisor must recognize the need for instruction, the principles of instruction, the planning required in instruction, and the follow-up that is always an essential part of every responsibility.

The principles of good instruction. If the supervisor is to be responsible for good instruction, it is necessary that he understand the elements of good teaching just as it is necessary that he know the elements of his production job. The supervisor may act as an instructor himself, or in a large department, supervise instructors. An instructor should convey to the learner an attitude of patience, painstaking effort, and good will. Such an attitude tends to become reciprocal and results in establishing a feeling of mutual confidence between instructor and learner. The instructor should have clearly in mind a definite objective for the individual lesson and unless this objective is definite there will be much wasted time and effort. Every instructor should carefully resolve the particular subject or task into its instructional factors. (Often this will already have been done for the supervisor or his instructors, but, if not, he must do it himself or have it done under his supervision.) These instructional factors should be arranged in their logical *learning sequence* for teaching purposes and then to insure effective results a plan should be developed to present each step. The supervisor will often find the logical teaching sequence varies from the order in which he learned the job. It is essential that he rely not only on his past experience but also that he analyze the job and the method of teaching it in order to find the one best way to instruct the learner. Frequently this best way is to teach the easy parts of the work first, irrespective of where these parts come in actual job performance. If the job has been broken down into its elements, the determination of the logical learning sequence is made easier.

When the supervisor or his instructors are instructing a new employee the teaching should be carried on with the major objective of bringing the learner up to production in a minimum time and in keeping with the organized plan of instruction. *Instruction is a tool used by the supervisor for the purpose of improving and increasing production.* The time devoted to instruction of employees can only come from one place, out of that ordinarily used for productive purposes. Every part of a man's work day which is devoted to instruction must be fully utilized to the end of developing that man into a more effective producer. This end can only be accomplished when the in-

struction is planned in advance and each lesson is part of a broad plan, and the proper methods and techniques are used with the objective of the particular lesson in mind. Whenever the supervisor acts as an instructor, he must be sure that the instruction is productive, accomplishing the objective of instruction and utilizing the best method of getting the lesson across to the man. When he has staff instructors to assist him, the supervisor must be certain they are using sound methods to the same end of increasing production in terms of both quantity and quality.

Teaching steps. In teaching one of the skills, such as operating a machine, certain steps should be followed after the instructor has made adequate preparation for his task.

(1) *Explain to the employee the nature of the work,* the hazards to be avoided, the value of the equipment and product, and the use of special tools, specifications, and gages. Giving an introductory overall picture of the work to be done pays dividends because then the employee learns the operations more rapidly.

(2) *Demonstrate the work* with the learner in the position, as nearly as possible, that he will be when he performs the same operation. This is very important, yet it is often overlooked, and frequently the instructor will place the learner on the opposite side of the machine or work bench. The first demonstration may well be at normal production speed. The second demonstration should be performed slowly enough for the learner to see each step of the operation in detail, and the relationship of each operation to its succeeding operation. The *why* of each operation should be explained as well as the *how.*

(3) *Let the learner do the job himself.* After the learner has had ample opportunity to familiarize himself with the details required, he should be allowed to make his initial trial under the direct guidance and supervision of the instructor. It has been proved scientifically that the desired skill will be acquired more quickly if the learner from the beginning completes the entire operation at standard production speed. From a practical standpoint, however, this is seldom possible where the value of the equipment or material is high, since scrap and breakage under such a procedure are excessive.

(4) *Correction by the instructor* should accompany the initial trials as well as later work. This correction should be carried out by both suggestion and demonstration.

(5) *Follow-up* is essential not only during the early part of instruction, but also as the learner progresses, in order to avoid the formation of bad work habits. The instructor must teach the one best-

known method, and he must see to it that the learner acquires this standardized method of operation.

A warning is in order, "Teachers tend to teach as they were taught when they learned the operation and not as they have been taught to teach when considering sound principles of learning." This fact is witnessed on all sides. The supervisor should constantly look for and practice good teaching methods.

The need for retraining. Instruction of new employees is only part of the instruction job for which the supervisor is responsible. In addition to the instruction of new employees, for which the supervisor is responsible, in a continuing organization every supervisor is faced with the retraining of old employees which results from the changing work situation. The conditions giving rise to the need for retraining are several. (1) Technological changes may abolish the job on which an employee is working and the company may wish to retrain rather than discharge him. (2) An employee, because of illness, accident, or incapacity due to age, no longer can carry on his share of the task he performed when in normal strength. (3) Depression or cyclical variations in production create conditions where, in part, employment stabilization may be achieved by having a versatile work force capable of performing more than one job. (4) Some employees are engaged in a confined phase of a particular task and lose their all-round skills in their particular trade. Retraining is often necessary to keep active their all-round skills as a reserve in case of need. The same principles of good instruction apply in retraining old employees that have been found successful in training new employees. In retraining, however, one additional factor is involved—the ability of the supervisor to sell the old employee on the need for retraining. The new employee is anxious to learn his new work and in training a new employee the supervisor starts with a person willing to receive instruction. The old employee frequently is not so willing to be retrained. This presents another instructional problem to the supervisor. If the supervisor knows his men well, has their confidence, and is recognized as a leader among them, then this problem will not arise or can be solved by the supervisor in conference with the old employee who needs retraining.

Types of training. There has been considerable experience accumulated and experiments have been made with the various types of training. The more common types of training methods include: (1) on-the-job training, (2) off-the-job training, (3) company training schools where subjects other than manual skills are taught, (4) safety instruction, (5) apprenticeship training. On-the-job training takes

place in the department on the equipment where the employee will work. Instruction may be done by an old employee who is experienced on the work to be taught, by the supervisor, by a special instructor or by the understudy method. Many supervisors depend on an older, experienced man who has some ability as a teacher to break in each new employee in the department, yet here the supervisor must follow up the progress of the learner and the methods used by the older employee in his instruction of the new man.

Few supervisors, unless they are natural-born teachers, carry out their responsibilities for instruction either because they lack time to instruct their men or because they have never studied the principles of instruction. Instructing is a specialized skill that cannot be acquired overnight. Very few persons are naturally good teachers. Every supervisor, even though he has staff instructors, should know and be able to practice the correct methods of instruction. Successful supervisors are always found to be good instructors and regularly devote a part of their time to instruction. In large companies today staff instructors are frequently provided, but this does not relieve the supervisor of his responsibility for instruction; he must still follow up their work. The understudy method, where a new employee is assigned to an old employee to learn the work, also requires frequent follow-up by the supervisor.

Instruction off the production line in the so-called vestibule school has been used by many companies. During the First World War and at present, vestibule school training is being widely used. It is especially suited to mass training of semiskilled operators. Its advantages include: (1) more efficient use of the instructor's time and skill, since the trainees are more conveniently located and under closer supervision; (2) regular production is not impeded by learners as is true in on-the-job training; (3) the general atmosphere is more favorable to learning, since there is not so much confusion to the beginner unacquainted with machine production; (4) emphasis can be laid upon the phases of the work where the learner is weakest, without disrupting production; (5) instructors should be more highly skilled as instructors since the principles of specialization enable the organization to take better advantage of the instructor's time; (6) vestibule school training is well adapted for training regular employees for promotion when used after regular work hours.

Vestibule school training has disadvantages also, of which the chief ones are: (1) with the passage of time, there is a tendency for equipment and methods of the vestibule school to lag behind the shop equipment and methods; (2) the vestibule school tends to under-

emphasize the time element in the performance of a task, definitely an unrealistic situation; (3) an adjustment period is required when transferring the learner to the shop. Despite these disadvantages it may be used to advantage by companies needing a large number of quickly trained employees. Some companies today are finding means to overcome the disadvantages of the vestibule school. They have worked out a combination of vestibule school and on-the-job training that appears to be successful. Every supervisor expecting to become an effective instructor can well afford to study the instruction methods and techniques used in vestibule school training. Whether he must be his own instructor in his department, must supervise learners from a vestibule school as they adapt themselves to actual production when they are assigned to his department, or must supervise staff instructors in his department, the supervisor will find he can carry out his responsibility for instruction more effectively when he understands the problems and methods of instruction.

Many companies operate schools for their employees in subjects other than the manual skills. These schools, usually under the direction of the training department or personnel division, give employees an opportunity to take courses in blueprint reading, drafting, designing, and other engineering courses, accounting, and other subjects. Recently some companies have developed courses for prospective supervisors which include discussions of human relations problems, production problems, and labor relations. Supervisors may attend these courses to provide themselves with up-to-date information to enable them to do a better job of supervision. Employees in their department may be selected for such courses, and when this occurs, the supervisor must be on his toes to see that he practices the same methods and techniques of supervision taught his men. Safety is an additional responsibility of the supervisor and will be discussed at length later. It must be noted here, however, that when the supervisor is instructing his men in safety practices, he follows the same principles of instruction used in other training he gives his men. Apprenticeship training as it is practiced today, is a combination of on-the-job and off-the-job training designed for training young men to become skilled craftsmen. This type of training covers both mechanical and classroom work and ordinarily lasts several years.

Considerations in the learning process that should be understood by the supervisor. Instruction is a technical process and the supervisor who would become a good instructor needs basic technical knowledge. For many years the teaching profession has been engaged in research, evolving and revising the techniques and methods of instruction. In-

dustry can learn from this work, drawing from the experience of others the basic considerations necessary to make industrial training effective. Some of these considerations are as follows.

(1) The speed of absorption of new skills is not constant. Plateaus develop when learning progress is charted and these plateaus differ with different jobs and among different learners, yet they appear to follow a general pattern. The supervisor must recognize this fact in his instruction work especially encouraging beginners when they reach a plateau stage in their progress.

(2) The learning sequence, in order to avoid excessive scrap and learner discouragement, should follow the principle of going from the less difficult to the more difficult, even though in the beginning the instructor may have to perform certain intervening operations himself. When the supervisor must act as his own instructor in his department, this requires him to analyze the work to be taught and to plan his instruction carefully.

(3) A strong incentive definitely influences the rate of learning. This incentive may take several forms, financial incentives are most effective, but the supervisor may well employ other incentives in his instruction of learners. These include competition, recognition, and ratings.

(4) Experience and experiment have established a definite learning pattern. The work of the average learner progresses from a high degree of inaccuracy to a high degree of accuracy. The speed at which he works is slow at first but increases as he learns and practices. Every learner at the beginning is hesitant, and this hesitancy is founded on a lack of confidence. The learner's confidence in himself and his ability to do the job develop as he gains speed and accuracy. It is found that the learner's progress in developing accuracy and speed, and in overcoming his lack of confidence, parallel each other. When the work to be learned involves a large number of operations, the learner should familiarize himself with the simple operations first and progress gradually from becoming proficient in a small number of operations to becoming proficient in many operations some of which may be simultaneously performed with both hands.

(5) Instruction must be followed up regularly by the supervisor. Follow-up is essential both to make sure proper methods and techniques are used (where the supervisor has staff instructors available) and to plan for revised and future instruction. *Instruction is a continuous process,* there is no completion point at which it can be cut off. The learner may fall into improper methods getting away from the standardized method he has learned. New techniques are devel-

oped in which the older employee must be retrained. Instruction is also required where it is necessary to train old employees in the handling of new materials on regular equipment. Finally, there is instruction of men for upgrading to more difficult work on greater responsibilities.

Results of proper instruction. Since proper instruction is essentially productive, the supervisor can expect it to lead to (1) a reduction in labor turnover, (2) a reduction in material waste, (3) a reduction in the learning period, hence a reduction in instruction costs, (4) a reduction in wear and tear, as well as machine breakage, (5) increased quantity and quality production, (6) improved morale and institutional pride. The supervisor must realize first, however, that proper instruction comes only after he has recognized his responsibility as an instructor from an organizational and management standpoint; secondly, that two of his three major tasks, those of supervising and deputizing, have definite instructional elements; and third, that planning and follow-up are essential in an instructional program. Constant study of the principles of instruction and an understanding of the problems and techniques involved, added to a great deal of actual practice in instruction, are necessary before the supervisor can become an able instructor.

Safety and good housekeeping. During the instruction period the supervisor has an excellent opportunity to indoctrinate the new employee with sound practices in safety, to teach him the habits of good housekeeping and to make him waste-conscious. While the employee is learning his job the supervisor should see that he learns the safety rules and regulations of the department and those practices designed to protect him and his fellow employees. There is no profit in training a new employee, in bringing him up to production speed through proper instruction, and in losing him then through an accident. The average new employee does not have good housekeeping habits and is not waste-conscious. Each of these factors should be emphasized as part of the instruction process. It is much easier to drive home the importance and value of a clean workplace, of conserving materials and taking proper care of the machine and tools when the employee is new than after he has become an "old timer." Safety, good housekeeping, and waste control are habits which can be formed during the instruction stage.

CHAPTER X

INTRODUCING THE NEW EMPLOYEE TO HIS JOB

The new employee. The supervisor who has a well-planned procedure for introducing new employees to the work in his department has taken the first step toward building departmental morale. One of the best stimulants to the development of a high morale in a new employee is for him to know that his supervisor appreciates his feeling of strangeness and his desire to make good. The supervisor should put himself in the new employee's place, treating him as he expects to be treated for it has been truly said that a fundamental principle in successful supervision is the practice of the Golden Rule. This may sound like a platitude but happily it is one that works. If the supervisor will recall his own feelings and experiences in starting as a new employee with his present and former organizations, he will undoubtedly carry out his responsibility for introducing each new employee conscientiously and thoroughly. The successful supervisor develops an appreciation of the importance of properly introducing the new man to his job and plans certain techniques and procedures that will be helpful in carrying out this responsibility. Every supervisor faces the responsibility of handling the new men hired to work in his department. There is often a gap between the step of selecting and hiring the new employee by the personnel department and his developing into a satisfied worker-in-his-unit. Proper introduction to the job bridges this gap turning an ill-at-ease new employee into a confident and interested veteran employee.

Many organizations make painstaking efforts to select the best qualified man for a position. Tests of various kinds are utilized, personal interviews are used, references and recommendations are checked, and considerable expense is incurred in hiring a new employee. After the employee is hired he is sent directly to a supervisor who frequently puts him to work immediately and pays little attention to him afterwards, unless his work is unsatisfactory. The new employee's attitude during the first days and weeks of his employment on a new job is definitely influenced by his experiences at this time, and that attitude often becomes his permanent attitude toward his work situation.

First impressions, irrespective of their reliability, usually are lasting. Frequently an employee who seems to have great promise fails to make good or even quits. Very often the blame rests not on employment methods but on the induction or lack of induction methods which follow the employment process. The Army has recognized *the importance of first impressions* and the need for developing in new men the proper attitude and high degree of morale and therefore has established induction centers.

Almost every person starting on a new job lacks confidence in himself in some degree. This is due in part to the fact that the new employee knows little or nothing about the company, its policies and methods, the work he is being hired to perform and his opportunities for advancement within the organization. Few supervisors realize how little confidence new employees have in themselves, the effect of their lack of confidence on their efficiency, the bearing it has in developing their attitudes and how it may result in a lack of morale. As a matter of fact, many employees harbor a real fear of the work and of their own ability to perform it. The majority of people who work for others are to a greater or lesser degree afraid of their superiors, yet as a general rule, the line supervisors fail to recognize this attitude in the new men who enter their departments. They fail also to realize the importance of first impressions and the difficulty of breaking down and rebuilding unsatisfactory attitudes based on poor first impressions. The supervisor's objective in introducing every new employee is to develop the employee into a satisfied worker-in-his-work unit. In order to accomplish this objective the supervisor must recognize the need for understanding the new employee, the need for a carefully planned and detailed procedure for the introduction of new employees, and the necessity for a constant and regular follow-up until the objective of a well-balanced satisfied worker-in-his-work unit has been achieved.

Requirements for a satisfied worker-in-his-work unit.[1] The supervisor must strive to discover the factors necessary to produce a satisfied, well-balanced worker-in-his-work unit. Only with a knowledge and understanding of these factors is the supervisor prepared to introduce new employees to their work in his department as the first step in building high departmental morale. The factors necessary to produce a satisfied well-balanced worker-in-his-work unit include: (1) a balance in interests, capacities, and opportunities, (2) confidence in

[1] See Scott, Clothier, Mathewson, and Spriegel, *Personnel Management,* McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1941, Chapter II, for a detailed discussion of the worker-in-his-work unit.

himself, (3) training to meet the demands of the job, (4) knowledge and understanding, (5) a feeling of belonging and loyalty.

Each new employee reacts differently to a new job and in turn new work has a different effect on different employees. *The supervisor is responsible for developing every worker-in-his-work unit into a well-balanced, satisfied employee.* There are three aspects of the employee which must be considered in adjusting him to his work situation, namely, his interests, his capacities, and his opportunities. Interests refer not only to his present desires and ambitions but also to those submerged and vague yearnings of the individual. By capacities is meant the abilities, both present and potential, possessed by that employee. Opportunities include not only chances for advancement but also opportunities to exercise capacities and satisfy interests. The supervisor should strive to balance the capacities, interests, and opportunities of his men both old and new, since the employee who is out of balance can lower the morale and production of an entire department. Each new employee presents the supervisor with the problem of balancing interests, capacities, and opportunities. The supervisor can only learn the first two through getting acquainted with the man. The third he knows already. When he has this knowledge he can begin to take the steps necessary to balance the opportunities against the employee's interests and abilities. Sometimes it is necessary to transfer the man to other work. Additional training may be necessary and frequently the supervisor must assist the employee in working out personal problems outside the work situation in order to bring about the necessary balance.

Many men lack confidence in themselves. They have misgivings as to what they can and cannot do. They worry about their ability to adjust themselves (1) to their job and the standards required in the work, (2) to the group of employees with whom they will live and work for eight or more hours a day, and (3) to the requirements of the particular foreman. Building the new employee's confidence in himself is one of the first steps which every supervisor should take in introducing a new employee to his department.

New employees frequently lack full confidence in the company for whom they have just gone to work. They are inclined to question the company policies, the opportunities for advancement, and the training it offers. The supervisor has a selling job to do, for the company is on trial as well as the new employee. If the employee is not satisfied he will quit and look for another position, provided conditions are favorable, or in times of depression he may stay on the job but never become fully productive. Although the supervisor should not oversell

the company and the opportunities it offers new employees, he should show each new employee, as a part of the induction process, that the company policies are sound, that the company is sincerely interested in him and will provide him with training and an opportunity for advancement consistent with the requirements of the company. Men want to be proud of their company, to have faith in its policies, and to be able to defend its standards of wages and its management. Men like to boast to their friends and family about the company for which they work. Too often the supervisor takes it for granted that a new man came to work for the company because of the company's reputation. To a limited extent this attitude is warranted, yet to make a temporary attitude permanent requires careful planning and follow-up. To foster the favorable attitude the new employee has toward the company the supervisor tells the new employee about the company, its history, its policies, and the opportunities it offers, without exaggeration but with personal confidence in what he says.

Finally, every new employee seeks security in his job. He wants to know that if he behaves himself and does his work satisfactorily, his job will continue. Although this is not always possible because of conditions and circumstances beyond the company's control, the supervisor should make each new employee feel that he is secure in his job, that his job will not be subject to the whims of subordinates or others but will depend only on his satisfactory performance and the continuance of work. When, as part of the introduction process, the supervisor gets this across to a new employee, he will find he has paved the way for winning the confidence of that man and for building a willingness to cooperate.

The supervisor is responsible for instructing new employees in the work they will perform. The supervisor should always remember that instruction or training is most effective if it is given when and where it is needed. He should not give the new man all his training at the beginning but he should give him the essentials that he needs to get started and additional instruction when and as he requires it. Training is a continual process for both new and old men. Well-trained men usually are satisfied, contented employees, whereas inadequately trained men are frequently discontented. Training is very important as a part of the process of introducing the new employee to the job, of explaining to him the importance of his work and the methods of learning, and of overcoming the difficulties of the job.

A satisfied employee usually understands and agrees with the company's objectives, its rules and regulations, and its traditions and customs. Therefore, each new employee, as a part of the introduction to

his job, should be given this knowledge and an understanding of his place in the organization as well as the work that is required of him. The successful supervisor will see that the new employee knows the company objectives and policies, that he is familiar with the rules and regulations under which he works, and that he realizes the meaning of the traditions and customs of the company. *Satisfied employees are always found to have a feeling of belonging, which is the foundation of loyalty to the company.* Old employees contented with their employer and job are found to have this feeling of being a part of the company. It is their company and they are proud of it and its product; with this feeling men are loyal to their company and their supervisor. The objective of every supervisor should be to develop the employees in his department into satisfied, well-balanced workers-in-their-work unit. He attains this objective in part by recognizing the factors essential to produce satisfied employees and by incorporating these in his introduction of new employees.

Results of improperly inducting new employees. Proper introduction and follow-up of new employees require considerable knowledge and effort on the part of the supervisor. The results of improper induction, however, reveal that the extra effort more than repays the supervisor. If the supervisor does not carefully plan and thoroughly carry out his program in introducing new employees, he will encounter the following results: (1) increased labor turnover, (2) increased hiring costs, (3) disappointed and disgruntled employees, (4) an unnecessarily long adjustment period. More men quit the first day than at any other time. There are two points at which labor turnover is very high, one is the first day an employee works and the other is the time when he is being transferred from the training period to actual operation. The extent of this turnover is largely dependent on the effectiveness of the supervisor's introduction of the employee to the job. It is expensive when a man is hired and works only a short time before quitting. Hiring costs are considerable when it is realized that they include the costs of interviewing, checking references, physical examination, putting a man on the payroll, and training him, as well as the wages paid him in excess of his productivity during the training period. The employee who quits is disappointed and disgruntled and will talk about his unsatisfactory experience among his friends and neighbors. Departmental employees will be dissatisfied because of the increased burden they must carry temporarily and the delays in departmental production resulting from being understaffed. Even though the employee does not quit, the fact that the supervisor has not inducted him properly leads to an unnecessarily long adjust-

ment period. When the new employee is thrown at his work, figuratively speaking, and expected to stick, he will make many mistakes and learn incorrect work habits which are difficult to break. Properly inducted, which includes soundly developed job instruction, the new employee will learn the right work methods, will be given the advantage of the experience of others, and will reach the production standards set for his job sooner than the employee who failed to receive a proper introduction to his job. The supervisor who neglects his responsibility for introducing the new employee to his job and is not interested in developing well-balanced satisfied workers-in-their-work units will find that he actually increases his problems and creates difficulties for himself in supervising his men.

Starting the new employee off right. The supervisor, as part of his responsibility for introducing the new employee, has a definite responsibility to management for selling the company to the new employee. This is the first step in building a satisfied worker-in-his-work unit. Obviously in order to do this successfully the supervisor must be sold on the company himself and be familiar with the company's objectives, policies, rules and regulations, customs and traditions. This process begins in the personnel department even before the man is hired. Every applicant is entitled to the same consideration in the personnel department that he would receive if he were a customer of the company. Many companies forget that applicants may later become buyers and treat the applicant with an utter lack of courtesy.

A man wants certain assurances as an applicant and, before he is hired, he wants to be certain that the personnel policies of the company are sound, that promotion is based on merit and that there is an opportunity for promotion, that working conditions are satisfactory, and that his work associates will be congenial. The personnel department owes every man it hires an explanation and assurance on these points. But the supervisor must be certain that the new employee has been so informed and reassured and that the new employee understands the policies of the company. The supervisor must follow up to make certain first that the new employee was given these facts in the personnel department and second that he understands them clearly. If the new employee is vague about the answers to his questions it is the supervisor and his department that pay the penalty. Many companies devote a great deal of attention to their salesmen and little or no attention to the employees in their production departments. Yet in the community the best salesmen for the company product and the company as a good place to work are these same pro-

duction employees, who greatly outnumber the sales force. They influence many persons in their community who may be either potential buyers or prospective employees.

The place of the personnel department in introducing the employee to his job. The personnel department should take considerable pains with each new employee. He should be given an accurate description of the duties and responsibilities of his job. Job descriptions when available are very helpful. The new employee should be shown the opportunities for advancement and promotion charts, if available, are definite indicators to the new man that his company will give him promotion opportunities in line with his capacities. The personnel department, because of its position, can show the new employee the relationship of his particular job to the enterprise as a whole, pointing out to him his place in the organization and how he contributes to the objectives of the enterprise. Many a man lacks interest in his work because he does not see where his job fits in with the other operations. The personnel department should define the terms of service to the new employee telling him about hours of work, shift rotation, overtime, holidays, sick leave, absences and tardiness, wages, pay period, pay day, deductions from wages, insurance, vacations, and other information contained in the published personnel policies, rules, and regulations.

The importance of the personnel department, not only in hiring but also in inducting new employees, cannot be overemphasized. The new employee gets his first impression of the company at this point and first impressions are often lasting. The personnel department is the best qualified department to induct the new employee into his new position, up to and including the actual job, giving him all the information he needs to start him toward becoming a well-balanced, satisfied worker-in-his-work unit.

Many large companies today operate formal induction programs for new employees and recently the Army has emphasized the importance of inducting new men. Some of the items covered and explained in an induction program may include the history of the company, description of the company products with their method of manufacture and their uses, the organization of the company and its industrial relations policies, employee service activities, company plant and departmental activities, the importance of safety, and job routines. Sound slide films, movies, conferences, and lectures led by various departmental representatives, tours, displays, bulletin boards, and booklets may all be used. The cost of such programs and the personnel required to handle the work are minor considerations in comparison with

the long-range results that accrue to the company. Such programs create a good first impression, start the new employee off well sold on his company with a foundation on which loyalty and morale may be built, and begin the development of a satisfied worker-in-his-work unit.

After the new employee has passed through the personnel department, he is sent to the department where he will work. Many companies overlook the importance of the personal escort for the new employee to his place of work. This is not a job for an errand boy. Since first impressions are lasting the escort should be a person especially assigned to this work. The new employee may ask questions of importance requiring clear-cut answers. In large organizations it may be a considerable distance from the place of employment to the department where the new employee will work and during this trip the escort can begin to build the interest in and loyalty to the company in the new employee. He should be able to answer questions about the company, its products, its policies, and even about the department to which the new man is assigned and the job on which he will work.

The supervisor's responsibility for introducing new employees. Since the supervisor is a line officer, he is responsible for the introduction of the new employee and for developing him into a satisfied, well-balanced, worker-in-his-work unit. He is assisted by representatives of staff departments, personnel, and safety, but these departments are merely facilitating agencies with the real responsibility resting in the line where it belongs. If the personnel department only hires men and is unable to induct them, the responsibility for introducing them then rests entirely on the supervisor. When the personnel department not only hires but also partially inducts the new men, then the supervisor's job consists of follow-up and training. After following up the induction program of the personnel department to make certain the new man understood what he was told, the instruction and training of the new employee begin. Whatever the method to introduce the new man to his job, the supervisor must be sure he gets started properly. During the hiring period, many of the things told the prospective employee go in one ear and out the other, for his mind is on getting the job, not what he is told about the job. The supervisor will find it a safe procedure to review with each new employee his wage rate, increases, pay period and pay day, hours, shifts, holidays, absences, and industrial relations policies. The next step in the introduction process then is to acquaint the man with the department, its work and operations, his job, and the instruction and training he will receive. The wise supervisor will point out the washroom,

show the new man the location of the time clock and how to operate it, see that he knows where the lunchroom is and that he meets some of his fellow employees. Many supervisors see that one of the old employees takes the new man to lunch the first day.

Early in the induction process the new employee should be introduced to the safety rules and regulations. This may be done by the safety department as part of the induction program or it may be done by the personnel department, but again the supervisor is responsible for seeing that every new employee knows and understands the safety practices of the company and of the particular department in which he is employed. Too many supervisors let the new man pick up the safety rules for himself, from the bulletin boards, a company safety booklet, or from the other employees. Every supervisor owes it to his men, to himself, and to each new employee to instruct carefully his new employees in the safety rules and regulations and to be certain they are understood and will be followed. Safety training is essential in the early stages of the induction process and must be diligently followed up.

It is the supervisor's responsibility, although he may delegate it, to give the new man instructions in and training on the work to which he is assigned. When the supervisor has used the right method of introducing a new man to his department and the departmental morale is high, he can ordinarily see that the new employee is introduced to several old employees and let them carry on the introduction and instruction process. No one feels more lonely than the new man on a new job in a new company. The supervisor must see that this feeling is immediately overcome. It has been repeated constantly that the supervisor must know his men, and the time to begin to study them, to discover their interests and capacities, is as soon as they enter his department. This introduction of new employees need not be a lengthy process; the introductory interview with the new employee need not take more than ten to fifteen minutes. The supervisor is interested only in getting acquainted with the new man, reviewing or giving him essential information about the department and his work, and beginning to win the man's confidence. Then the supervisor will normally turn him over to a trusted employee who is capable of completing the introduction and carrying out the instruction program. The supervisor, however, must follow up new employees just as he does his other responsibilities. He has only become acquainted with the new employee. Really to learn to know the man he must contact him frequently, especially during the first weeks of his employment.

The sponsor system. Some companies have a sponsor system. One man in each department, selected because of his personal interest in people, handles all new employees. This person carries through the introduction and instruction program after the foreman has initially interviewed the new employee. The sponsor sees to it that the new employee meets his fellow employees, accompanies him to lunch, and aids him in making the minor adjustments so essential to new employees. The sponsor may also be the instructor who trains the new man in the duties of his position. This method avoids the pitfalls that may arise through the new employee's contacting disgruntled employees early in his experience with the company.

Follow-up of the new employees. Many companies follow up new employees. After a certain period of time the new employee may receive an appointment card from the personnel department for a follow-up interview. In some companies the new man receives a personal letter from one of the top executives welcoming him to the company and giving him some specific and interesting information about the company, its products, and its policies. Certainly every supervisor who expects to do a good job of introducing new employees to his department will expect to follow them up at frequent intervals for a considerable time after they start in the department. The supervisor will want to check on the man's progress in learning his work, on his understanding and practice of the safety rules and regulations, and on his familiarity with company policies. When the supervisor delegates the responsibilities for the introduction and instruction of new men, he must not forget that he cannot delegate his own personal responsibility for delegation, and his follow-up will include checking both the man to whom he delegated his responsibility and the progress of the new employee. Nothing is more stimulating to a new employee than to have the supervisor, whom he met the first day of work, stop by to say hello and inquire about his progress. On the other hand, no supervisor can learn to know and understand his new men unless he does follow up and talk to them frequently. Certainly every supervisor, after introducing the new man to the job, will want to follow him up the next day, the following day, at the end of the first week, and again at the end of the second week. He should want to know what difficulties and troubles the new man is encountering and whether he is adjusting himself to the work and to his fellow employees. Follow-up action on the part of the supervisor not only builds the employee's confidence in the supervisor but also will frequently catch minor grievances before they begin to grow. When the supervisor follows up new men he can talk to them either in his office or at their

workplace. Frequently the latter is more convenient but certainly the former is the more effective. Talking to the man in the supervisor's office means the supervisor will have the man's undivided attention. He is more likely to be frank with the supervisor and the interview will be less hurried.

The introductory interview and these follow-up interviews will reveal to the supervisor certain characteristics common to new men. The new man is perplexed and often fearful. He is meeting strange people as well as strange work and methods. He is anxious to succeed and he may do things that evidence over-anxiety to do the job well. He will frequently have doubts as to his progress and a major reason for the follow-up by the supervisor is to relieve these doubts. Every supervisor who will remember when he last started a new job and how he felt and who will plan his introduction of new employees accordingly will find that he has taken a long step forward in turning new men into well-balanced satisfied workers-in-their-work units.[2]

[2] For a further discussion of this subject see Scott, Clothier, Mathewson, and Spriegel, *Personnel Management*, Third Edition, 1941, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, Chapter II, "The Worker-in-His-Work Unit"; Chapter XXI, "Introducing the Worker to His Job."

CHAPTER XI

WAGE ADMINISTRATION AND MERIT RATING

The supervisor and wages. Wages and their administration are major problems in every work relationship, and the supervisor must be prepared to meet the wage problems in his department which are raised by his men. The well-informed supervisor will know the vital factors that are included in wage administration: output, going rate in the community, cost of living, and the relationship of wages in one job classification to another. He must understand the factors that are sometimes raised in connection with wages such as the needs of a particular employee, length of service, seasonal or steady work, and the ability of a particular company to pay a higher scale. Every supervisor will be wise to equip himself with (1) a sound economic background on wage theory, including the ideal of a wage scale based on the proper rating and classification of every job, (2) a scale for each job classification that meets the approval of all parties concerned, including the men, community ideals, statutory regulations, management, and the consumer, and (3) a knowledge of the rating methods appled to employees in terms of those factors required by the job and by management. Only when the supervisor is well grounded in the subject of wages can he begin to handle successfully the wage problems in his department which if not settled lead to grievances and eventually to major difficulties.

The supervisor's responsibility for wage administration is an excellent illustration of the part he plays in representing management to men and men to management. He must know both his company's wage plan in detail and the performance of his men in relation to the company standards. Nowhere is it more important that the supervisor maintain a balanced relationship between the two parties involved than in his handling of wages. It is only natural for the men to seek higher wages; yet every management is interested in holding costs within reasonable limits, and in most organizations wages are a major factor in these costs. The supervisor must exert all his leadership, remain impartial, and base his every action on facts gained from knowing his men, as well as reflect in his actions both the viewpoint of management and the needs of his men, always keeping as his ob-

jective the fundamental aims of the enterprise. Wages are a frequent source of irritation unless great care is exercised not to overlook the equities of all concerned. Slight errors must be corrected at once, and the supervisor must be prepared to meet wage grievances with prompt actions and full explanations which will satisfy the men. Employees today are better informed than in the past, and the supervisor must understand and be able to explain to them the reasoning that lies behind company policies on wages

The nature of wages. Too few supervisors understand the fundamentals underlying wages, yet just as the supervisor cannot handle the production problems in his department unless he understands his materials, processes and machines, so no supervisor can fully understand and meet his wage problems unless he has a grasp of the principles underlying wage theory. Such knowledge not only enables him to understand his own company's wage policy and to explain this policy to his men, but also furnishes him with the necessary background to meet successfully the wage problems among his men. There are three kinds of wages that must be considered: real wages, monetary wages, and intangible wages. *Real wages* are wages in terms of the goods and services that may be bought with the money received as wages. A man's real wage may vary widely from a man's monetary wage. *Monetary wages* are the actual dollars and cents that the man receives in his pay envelope. *Intangible wages,* the third type, include those services such as good schools, good drinking water, sewers and garbage collection found in the community where the employees live. There are many plants which must pay higher monetary wages to offset the lack of such advantages to the men they employ. *The most important wage, however, is the real wage.*

In discussing wages it is important to distinguish clearly between real wages and monetary wages, particularly when comparing wages of one period with those of another or when comparing two different locations having different wage levels. From the standpoint of the man and his standard of living, the real wage is the vital factor. The real wage is measured by the goods and services that can be purchased with the monetary wage. The monetary wage is represented by the actual monetary units which the individual receives. A man who receives $48 per week and has to pay $60 per month rent for a home, with other living costs proportionately high, is in a relatively worse position than another who receives only $36 per week and pays $30 per month for rent with other living costs correspondingly low. Most executives have recognized this situation, but many labor leaders have either refused to recognize it or failed to comprehend its sig-

nificance. The intangibles are also important. Many a man will take less in his pay envelope when other services such as better living conditions and good schools are available.

In order to understand the fundamentals underlying wages it is necessary to examine the basis for wages. The bases of wage payment for a given job classification are (1) time, (2) output, and (3) quality in relationship to time and output. Thus men are paid for the time they work or the hours they put in; for the amount of work they produce or the number of parts; or for the combination of what they produce and the time in which they produce it, in terms of the quality of the work. The primary basis of any wage is *time*, it was the earliest unit on which wage payments were based. Fundamentally output also is based on time for even under piecework in the original setting of the rate a man is paid for how much he can do in a given amount of time. Of recent years wage incentive systems have been developed combining the output and time bases for wages in terms of standards set for quantity and quality. Wage plans vary from company to company and many different types have been developed, every one, however, developed originally out of one of these three fundamental bases of wage payment.

The meaning of "satisfactory wages." Economists have long discussed wages in terms such as just wages, adequate wages, and fair wages, and the arguments have ranged far into the realms of economics, philosophy, and ethics. It is difficult to establish ethical criteria for any of these concepts which will stand up under searching examination. As a matter of fact all these and other terms applied to wages have been found both difficult to define and very loose in their usage. They can be twisted by the individual using them, depending on what he wants to prove.

The satisfactory wage. The determination of the amount of wages paid under our industrial system has rested in the past primarily with the employer. This was especially true prior to the general acceptance of collective bargaining. Today, however, wages not only must be satisfactory to the employer but are also limited by their acceptability to the employees individually and collectively as well as possibly by the general attitude of the community and federal or state agencies. Thus, instead of a basic wage which is set entirely by the employer, today there is found a basic wage which is ordinarily termed "right" or "satisfactory." There can be no general definition of the meaning of a "satisfactory" wage inasmuch as its limits will differ so greatly under varying conditions. However, it can be stated that a satisfactory wage must bear the scrutiny of employees and, at times, of the

community and the government. The general attitude of a large community will not be likely to influence the wages of an individual plant to any great extent. However, if the plant is the main industry of the community or if there are only two or three plants in the community, and if industry is localized so that a large portion of the community other than those actually at work in the plant secure their livelihood as a result of the wages paid within the factory, then the community attitude may be very important.

Not infrequently we hear satisfactory wages spoken of as though they were "just" wages. In order to indicate the inaccuracy of such an idea and also to prevent confusion when a so-called "just" wage is attacked by the employees, it will be well to examine the fundamentals of what constitutes "just" wages. Any true idea of just wages must necessarily include a concept of payment to wage earners on the basis of their contribution to industry, as well as some concept concerning the right to a fair living for an individual engaged in the productive process. The contribution of an individual or, in other words, his "productivity," has never been satisfactorily measured under our present industrial system, and it is questionable whether it can be measured. Our whole life is so complex, and the relations of one person to production are so inexact, that it becomes practically impossible to determine the exact extent to which he or she has added to the goods of the world. Before the inauguration of the factory system it was more nearly possible to arrive at some concept of the productivity of an individual, but the factory employee of today is performing but a small part of the production of the article on which he is working. The machine on which he works and the building in which he is employed have not only been furnished and designed by the employer and the management, but have also, in the first instance, been created by others. A knitter working on a complex knitting machine contributes much to the production of the finished product which comes off that machine. The question remains, however: "How much of the production is made possible by the men in another factory far removed who made the knitting machine?" The economic theory of marginal productivity is helpful in theoretical discussions, but it is difficult to apply on a large scale to changing industrial conditions. Our idea of justice in the abstract must be tempered by practical considerations in its application to social conditions.[1]

From the point of view of the working man in the United States a

[1] See Frank C. Sharp and Philip G. Fox, *Business Ethics*, D. Appleton-Century Co., New York, 1937, pages 181–194, for an interesting discussion of the ethics of a fair wage.

satisfactory wage either must be high enough to maintain the American standard of living or must be the market rate of wage payment, whichever is higher. Management in general would subscribe to this statement of the just wage with the proviso that it is the competitive market rate, not one established by a noneconomic means.

Presumably, regardless of the productivity of the individual, there is a point below which wages must not go in order that the individual and the persons dependent on him may survive. This is seemingly the lower limit of a just wage, but in particular cases even this lower limit must presumably be undercut if, for the moment, the industrial establishment in question is to survive. Those intimately concerned may regard a given wage in certain ways which aid in determining whether or not that wage approaches a just wage. Probably that is as far as anyone can go at the present time.

A satisfactory wage is one that is at least as high as the going rate in the community where a man lives. It may also be defined as the rate that enables a man to maintain his standard of living. Ordinarily the most satisfactory wage is the highest of these rates which either enables the man to maintain his standard of living or is the going rate in the community. Any time a plant pays wages lower than those paid by other plants in the community discontent will be found among the employees of the first plant. Likewise, rates which fail to provide men with sufficient income to maintain their standard of living cause trouble. The concept of a standard of living must be considered in terms of group standards of living, not those of any one individual. It must be remembered, too, that a satisfactory wage is in terms of real wages rather than monetary wages. Generally speaking, when men's wages provide them with sufficient money to maintain a satisfactory standard of living there is not much likelihood of labor trouble. It should be noted that specific standards of living vary from community to community and therefore wages must vary also. Since it is the real wages which are important, monetary wages must vary whenever living costs vary from community to community.

A satisfactory wage may reasonably be expected to measure up to the standards growing out of the community's, management's, men's, and government's viewpoints. It is obvious that management's viewpoint of the cost of the product and the price for which it can be sold, together with the financial structure of the company, must be taken into consideration in the determination of wages. If wages are set at a level which raises the cost of the product above the cost of products with which it competes, both the wage earners and the management suffer over a period of time. One of the best examples of what

happens when wages reach too high a level is the anthracite coal industry where wages were increased without consideration of the consumer or competing products with results ultimately tragic both to men and management in the industry. On the other hand, if wages do not meet the approval of the men, management will not be able to secure enough men to produce its products. Those men who do go to work for the company will be dissatisfied and labor turnover will be high. Transfer from one job to another is a condition found particularly when business is on the upswing. When jobs are difficult to find, men may be temporarily satisfied with work that does not pay wages they consider adequate, but as soon as business conditions improve those same men seek other jobs, and the resulting increased turnover and training of new men brings higher labor costs. It is obvious that in the long run company policies, including wages, must meet with the approval of the community in which the plant is located and in which the men live. Wages are an integral part of the personnel policies of the company and therefore should meet the standards of the community viewpoint or men will be difficult to get and to hold.

Under present conditions it is necessary that wages meet the standards set up by federal and state statutes and governmental agencies. Today there are regulations governing minimum wages, maximum hours, overtime, hours and working conditions for women, child labor, and other labor conditions. The theory behind such legislation is that individuals by themselves are not strong enough to represent themselves successfully in the labor market and as a result they are likely to be exploited by selfish and shortsighted managements and therefore it is the government's responsibility to step in and prevent such conditions arising. Another argument advanced for governmental regulation of conditions entering into personnel policies is founded on the popular conception of the need for governmental action to equalize competition in submarginal situations. In actual practice these theories do not always work out and evidence indicates that wage policies of farsighted managements with enlightened personnel policies are usually far above minimum standards set by the government.

Wages in relationship to governmental regulations. Because employees today are better educated the supervisor must be prepared to answer difficult and sometimes embarrassing questions concerning wages. The viewpoint has been advanced that the social security program with its old age annuities affects wages. The supervisor should be certain that his men realize that the amount deducted from their pay checks goes to the government to provide for old age and does not accrue to the company as a few men still think and further

that the money paid by the company, in addition to the deduction from the man's check, goes for the same annuity and is in a sense a part of wages. Such money, however, is future wages, not immediate wages and yet it does far more for the individual than he could do for himself were he given the money. Here again the company in a sense is giving the man an addition to his wages in a form of savings such as he would be unable to save for himself. The cost of workmen's compensation insurance to the company, whether in the form of contributions to a state fund or insurance premiums, is again in a sense wages. These funds provide the men with financial bulwarks that most of them would not be able to build for themselves.

The relationship of wages to other factors. Too many supervisors fail to recognize the relationship of wages to the other factors of company income, seniority, and employee suggestions, and as a result never explain these relationships to their men. If the supervisor fails to see and understand the effect of company income on wages it is not likely that the men under him will recognize and understand what an essential tie-up there is between company income and wages. The average man will ask for wage increases regardless of the company's profit-and-loss statement and unless the supervisor is informed on the status of the company finances and understands the relationship of wages to income and then in turn can explain them clearly to the man's satisfaction, there is likely to be trouble. However, the supervisor is not always to blame; too often management has not kept him informed. Here is an ideal subject for supervisory conferences shortly after January first and July first of each year. Many managements today are mailing a simple breakdown of the financial statement sent to its stockholders to the employees and explaining to them exactly where wages fit into the financial picture.

Many people find a relationship between wages and length of service and some organizations recognize this relationship. Seniority, as such, has been discussed at length in another section [2] but it should be noted here that many companies follow a policy of automatic wage increases to employees, at least when these employees are in the early stages of employment, and then use merit and promotion as the basis of wage increases in the latter stages. Civil service administrations in the federal and state governments have been the greatest advocates of automatic wage increases based on length of employment. There is some doubt whether length of service in and of itself should be a cause for wage increases. Where length of service, however, increases

[2] See Chapter XII.

the knowledge and value of the employee and results in his advancement then, of course, there is no question as to the justification for increasing wages.

Another factor which often leads to wage increases is the suggestions made by the employee as part of his job which contribute to the value and success of the enterprise. Some companies have adopted suggestion plans which reward the employee with wage adjustments for usable suggestions. Undoubtedly such plans at times not only lead to a greater interest in these plans but also result in suggestions which are more likely to be of value to the company. In most cases, however, it is better to pay the man a flat sum for his suggestion, even though it is a substantial one, than to add the amount to a continuing wage.

Characteristics of a satisfactory wage payment plan. Any wage payment plan that results in a satisfactory wage must be adjusted fundamentally to the specific requirements of the job. This requires that it be based on job analysis and job rating[3] and that wages be set only after detailed knowledge has been developed concerning the basic requirements of the work. Output must be recognized as another basic element in a satisfactory plan whether the wage plan is based on piecework, day rate, or an incentive plan. It will consider versatility where versatility is required on the part of the man on the job. The cost of computation is a factor that should not be overlooked, yet often is, especially where the wage payment plan involves elaborately computed bonuses. There is also a need for a predetermination of labor costs. Management must know what the product will cost before it is made and therefore the wage plan should be so designed that it can furnish such information to the company. The wage plan, if it is going to be satisfactory to the men, will take into consideration the length of the training period. If it is necessary for a man to spend three or four years learning his job, he is entitled to a higher rate of pay at the end of the training period than the man who is on a job that requires little or no training.

Special hazards to the employee's health or life should be taken into consideration, if these are present. Where the job places unusual or undue responsibilities on the employee such as working on a machine using valuable tools or working with expensive materials it is only natural that his wage will be somewhat higher than that of other men who are working with less expensive tools, machines, or materials.

[3] See Scott, Clothier, Mathewson, and Spriegel, *Personnel Management*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1941, Chapters 19 and 20 for a detailed discussion of this subject.

Unusual or extreme working conditions will ordinarily call for higher wages. Illustrations of such jobs include those involving work done under very wet, dirty, or extremely hot or cold conditions. Another characteristic of a satisfactory wage plan is that it is readily understood by the employees. Some wage plans fail miserably in this respect, and the more complicated the method of computing wages, the greater difficulties supervision will face in explaining and administering wage policies. This is one of the chief criticisms directed at so-called incentive and bonus plans. Men like to know what their earnings will be and when the wage plan involves complicated calculations in the payroll department the men have no idea what their pay envelope will contain until they open it. When companies operate under group bonus plans or complicated piecework arrangements there is the additional burden placed on the supervisor of being able to understand the plan and explain it clearly to his men, pointing out wherein the plan has advantages to the men that outweigh its disadvantages. Generally speaking, there is a trend toward the simplification of wage policies since the overhead costs of elaborate payroll department computations are eliminated and the men are usually more satisfied. Although a wage payment plan may be based on time, output, or a combination of both, the trend today is toward the time basis with emphasis on quantity and quality standards being met.

Another characteristic that is being incorporated in many wage policies is that of providing automatic increases for employees from the bottom of their wage range to the top, these increases to take place unless the employee's record indicates that the increase is not merited. Employee rating scales are invaluable in connection with this feature. Another advantage is that it takes the responsibility for wage increases out of the supervisor's hands eliminating any opportunities for favoritism and at the same time places a control in his hands for use, takes a record-keeping responsibility off his shoulders, and provides for his men's being taken care of in an impartial fashion. It is essential, however, to prepare job analyses, to make a careful study of job rating, and to be sure that employee rating is used as part of the wage plan, before the automatic increase plan is put into effect. Taking care of wage increases in the hourly and sometimes even in the salary brackets is one of those responsibilities delegated to the personnel department. No supervisor should feel that the use of automatic increases deprives him of any of his authority over wages. Instead it relieves him of much of his detail work and he is still left with control over the wage situation in his department. It is a perfect example of the application of the exception principle in which the

supervisor has a procedure to follow which operates automatically; he is required to act only in the exceptional cases. It frees him to take care of other and more important responsibilities.

The supervisor's responsibility in connection with wages. Many supervisors will ask why they should be interested in the general and economic considerations above since they do not establish wage policies. Although the supervisor is not responsible for developing the wage plan, he is management's representative in interpreting and administering wage plans. He is usually responsible for determining the employee's status within a given job classification and setting the rate within the wage range. Frequently he is solely responsible, and almost without exception it is he who originates the initial rate increase. Many employees today are well informed on wage systems and the economics of wages. The older men who have worked for a number of different companies have had experience under a variety of wage plans but the younger employees today are better educated than they have been in the past, with the result that if the supervisor cannot explain the reasoning behind his company's wage plan in sound economic terms he will lose the respect of some of his men. It is unfortunately true that today, in a few instances, younger employees have been subjected, during their schooling or trade experience, to considerable false economic theories of wages, and the supervisor must equip himself to meet such situations. Sound wage economics are essentially common sense and sum up in the statement that satisfactory wages are those that are in general satisfactory to the management, the men, the community and the government. Each must have its interests considered fairly but not to the detriment of the others.

As a leader of men it is presumed that the supervisor will be informed on items such as the basic nature of wage payments. We know that intelligence is a strengthening factor in leadership. When the men have unsound theories and the supervisor is able to change their thinking by giving them sound economic reasoning it pays dividends both to him and his company. The supervisor in studying the wage system for his own department may make suggestions for improvements. These suggestions, of course, must be checked with management and against company policies and must move up through the proper channels before any changes can be made. Wage discussions possess possibilities of far-reaching results. Wage levels and scales by their very nature must be determined by management. Full understanding of these principles will convince the supervisor of this factor and will aid him to be a true representative of management.

The supervisor and the wage plan in his department. The supervisor should know not only the basic principles behind a particular system in use but also the details of its computation. If a man is dissatisfied with his wages and feels an injustice has been done, the supervisor must check not only the correctness of the amount with the payroll department but must also be able to explain to the man how it was determined. The supervisor must also understand the provisions for increases due his men under the wage plan. There is nothing that will cause a supervisor to lose face with his men faster than overlooking opportunities to give them increases to which they are entitled. He must understand these provisions and be able to explain them to men who do not come under the provisions or who cannot meet the requirements for increases. He should know whether the provisions are based on length of service, on output, or on some other factor. Where they are based entirely on the quality of the work turned out by the individual, and it is the supervisor's responsibility to recommend increases where he feels they are deserved, an additional burden is placed on the supervisor not only to know his men and the work they produc but also to lean over backward to see that his decisions are fair and impartial. Again wherever possible the supervisor should rate his men, using either those forms in use by the company or his own notebook as an aid in determining the men who should receive salary increases. The supervisor must also be familiar with the overtime provisions in the wage policy. He must be familiar with the procedure for putting through rate increases and, as will be discussed later, know the relationship of a man's rating to his wage level. With the close control that governmental agencies exercise over wages today it is to the advantage of every supervisor to be thoroughly familiar with the laws administered by these agencies and their relationship to the wage policy of his company. He will find that this knowledge will often assist him in explaining to his employees the reasons behind company wage policies and will prepare him to protect his company against unintentional violations of these statutes.

The supervisor's balanced relationship. As in so many of his responsibilities the supervisor must represent both management and the men in his relationship to wage administration. The supervisor is responsible to management for developing a sound background in wage theory and a thorough understanding of the company wage system. He must faithfully interpret the wage plan to the men and assume full responsibility for carrying it out without passing the "buck" to top management in an attempt to gain favor with the employees. He is required to see that output corresponds to the standard expected

for a given wage. The supervisor is responsible to management for seeing that merited increases within the classification scale are put through when due. Fundamentally every management that shows *due regard for the personal equation* is as anxious as the men themselves to see men who deserve it earn more money. On the other hand, the supervisor owes it to management to see that proper records are kept, that wages are in line with the procedures of the wage plan, and that forms are properly executed in order that other departments which share in the responsibility for wage administration such as payroll, accounting, and personnel can be properly informed.

The supervisor's responsibility to the men in wage administration is first and foremost to recognize merit and to see that wage increases are put through in keeping with the company's scale and when they are due; then to see that accurate records are kept of all the factors that affect wages so his decisions are based on recorded facts instead of memory, thereby insuring that his attitude toward wages and his men is impartial and fair. He is responsible for seeing that all errors are corrected promptly. A twenty-five cent shortage in an employee's pay envelope is a source of discontent that will be magnified out of all proportion to the amount involved. The supervisor owes his men a clear explanation of the wage system of their company and the reasons for it. He also should strive to see that they are sold on the wage plan in use. Like every other company policy the supervisor must see that the men understand and are satisfied with the wage policy.

The supervisor's responsibility is a dual one; most managements want their employees to get every cent that is due them, but the employees cannot expect the wage level to be increased beyond limits which will affect the selling price of the product. The supervisor must see that every employee gets the highest wage to which he is entitled and at the same time should assist management to keep the wage factor in the cost of the product within competitive limits. Inequality in wages is the breeding place of unrest, and favoritism in wage administration on the part of the supervisor weakens leadership and causes labor trouble. Wages are a major source of grievances and the supervisor will find that if he meets his responsibility for wages fairly and squarely both from the viewpoint of management and of his men, he will be well along the road toward developing leadership of the highest degree.

The supervisor and employee rating. Throughout the discussion of wage administration reference has been made to employee rating as one factor in a supervisor's handling of wages in his department.

Since the First World War many companies have introduced plans for rating their employees. Many supervisors are familiar with these plans and have used them after a fashion as part of their work without realizing the useful tool that rating may be. The practice of rating developed during the First World War when the problem of rating Army officers for the purpose of promotion became increasingly important. Following the war, industry adopted the practice and today the use of employee rating is widespread.

There are many different types of rating plans and rating forms but each one has the same objective. Ratings have been developed for all levels of employees, from men on the machines through supervisors, and including executives. Many companies tie their rating plans to their wage increase policy and they are also frequently used as one factor in selecting men for promotion. Ratings have been found valuable to some companies as a factor in determining the order in which men are to be laid off when work is slack, and recalled as business picks up. They can be especially valuable when used to establish an employee's rating within a given job classification scale. Ratings are not completely scientific, but they provide a method of obtaining objective evaluations of men although rating methods have not yet completely achieved the elimination of personal opinions. Every supervisor should recognize that the ratings of his men are only one factor to be considered in any decision he may make. The object of the rating form used by the supervisor is to enable him to consider his men on those factors which cannot be directly measured. It is easy enough for him to measure from available records the attendance of his men, the quality, and the quantity of the work they do. He does not have records, however, which measure the enthusiasm of his men, their loyalty, their dependability, their attitude toward the company, their fellow employees, and themselves, and their emotional stability. Periodic ratings will enable the supervisor to eliminate casual impressions or prejudices which he may have.

How ratings help the men. The supervisor can use his ratings of the men effectively to point out to them their weaknesses. The rating, when shown to the employee or when he is told where he stands in relation to other employees, will point out his weaknesses and wherein he can improve himself, thereby providing a goal toward which to work. The use of ratings will tend to give the men a feeling that they are getting a square deal and that management is regularly informed about them; furthermore, the men recognize that the supervisor must define his opinion of them in writing, and that management is in-

terested both in their ratings and the accuracy with which the supervisor rates them.

Factors used in rating. There are many different factors found on different rating forms but, in general, they fall in three groups: performance, ability, and institutional value. Those items concerning performance which the supervisor may find on rating forms include quality of work, quantity of work, stability, and accuracy. Such items as job knowledge, versatility, and promotion possibilities fall within the ability group. The items which may be classed under the heading of institutional value include attitude toward fellow employees, attitude toward supervisor, loyalty, initiative, and cooperation. A rating form is of the greatest value for the items of ability and institutional value, since these are essentially intangible qualities, difficult to measure, yet of definite value when measured. The ordinary rating forms will not carry all these items worded precisely in this way, but they will as a rule include somewhere between four and ten items on each of which the men are rated individually. The rating forms are then scored and the result is a more accurate picture of the employee than any personal opinion of the supervisor. The value of the rating rests on the fact that the supervisor must look at each employee and rate him on each of the items. Too often when ratings are not used, the supervisor will let one particular trait of an employee overbalance his opinion of the man. For example, an employee may have a tremendous fund of enthusiasm, and, although he rates high in that particular quality, it may be found when a rating form is used that he is low in initiative, loyalty, job knowledge, and other items. His rating score would then be somewhat lower, although without the use of the rating form the supervisor may have considered the man quite valuable because of his high degree of enthusiasm.

Methods used in rating. If the supervisor is to give his men a square deal and at the same time do a good job of rating, and if ratings are to be of any value to him, he must be sure that he uses the rating form in the proper manner. There are some techniques which he must adopt if he is to rate his men effectively. First, he must understand the items on which he is rating his men. There must be agreement between himself and other supervisors as to the meanings of these items and the standards to be used. Where records are not available and the supervisor is relying on his own impressions, he must refer to his contacts with the men recorded in his notebook and use this information for his ratings. Every supervisor must beware of ratings based only on recent impressions but he must endeavor to rate on the basis of his judgment formed over a reasonable period. It

is very easy to rate a man down on an item because he has been below standard on it only recently, but the supervisor must look back over a period of time to see if it has always been true or if it has only happened once. The value of the supervisor's using his notebook to record his contacts with his men and his impression of them at regular intervals is a part of rating his men. Skill in rating does not come easily and is not by any means a simple operation. The supervisor will find his rating will improve as he rates his men a second and third time. Time is required to do a proper job of rating. The supervisor should check on ratings to make sure he has not over-rated or under-rated his men, and that he has not rated them all the same on any one factor. Where the rating form involves rating the men on a number of different items, the supervisor should follow the practice of rating all his men on one item at a time before moving on to the next. After all, the object of rating is to rate the men one against the other and this is the best means of achieving this purpose.

Use of ratings in wage administration. When the supervisor uses ratings as part of his wage administration program his men will recognize that the wage policy of the department and the company is fairly administered and on an objective basis. The use of ratings eliminates to a large degree any unfairness or partiality in the supervisor's action on wage increases and promotion. Where an automatic wage increase policy is in effect, ratings provide the control exercised by the supervisor to prevent increases where they are not deserved.

Periodic ratings by the supervisor are of value to the personnel department when considering men for transfers or promotions. The supervisor will find that if he is required to rate his men he will be forced to learn to know them better and to study them more closely. Only through regular contacts with his men and recording these contacts in his notebook can the supervisor do a good job of rating. Many companies find that it is valuable for the supervisor to discuss a man's rating with him. This gives the supervisor the opportunity to point out individual weaknesses to bring about improvement and better preparation for advancement. The periodic rating also requires the supervisor to be more accurate and impartial and eliminates many opportunities for him to rate an individual low because of some personal dislike.

Summary. There is no more important responsibility that the supervisor must meet than that of wage administration, and the use of rating in connection with meeting his responsibility eliminates much of the guesswork in appraising the men as well as tending to eliminate inequality and discontent. When rating is tied into job analysis and

job classification, it eliminates inequality within a job. It gives men an opportunity to improve themselves and requires the supervisor to understand his men and know their work. As in so many of his other responsibilities, the supervisor must represent both men and management, knowing the company's wage plan and rating methods in detail, and his men's performance in relation to the company's standards. When the supervisor fulfils these responsibilities and stands impartially between the men and management in connection with wages and rating, he may be sure wages of his men will be satisfactory and his ratings fair.

CHAPTER XII

TRANSFERS, PROMOTIONS, AND DISCHARGES

The supervisor's responsibility for transfers, promotions, and discharges. Among the three tasks of the supervisor, organizing, deputizing, and supervising, the last named takes more time and effort than either of the others and plays a greater part in the life of his men. Inherent in the task of supervising is the responsibility of transferring, promoting, and discharging employees. The power of the supervisor over the social life of his employees has been noted, and nowhere in his work does the supervisor exercise this power to a greater extent than in his selection of men for promotion and transfer, or in his decision to discharge men. In his exercise of the responsibility for transfers, promotions, and discharges, a supervisor must remember the need for balanced and impartial action based on getting all the facts. Snap judgment has no place in the picture when the supervisor is promoting, transferring, or discharging men. It is easy to promote a man, but if he turns out to be not entirely satisfactory, it is often difficult to demote him. In any case, an unwise promotion creates an additional problem. The supervisor also suffers in the eyes of both management and his men and the men's confidence in him decreases when he makes many unsatisfactory promotions.

Under existing laws, the importance of the supervisor in discharging men has increased greatly. The day of indiscriminate hiring and firing of men is largely past. It costs money to hire men, more money and time to train them, and often considerable trouble to replace them. The supervisor should be sure of his ground and have a complete record before he moves to discharge a man. Many a supervisor has cost the management time and money as a result of discharging an employee without careful consideration of all the factors involved. The responsibility of transfer, although less emphasized in the past, is exceedingly important to the supervisor as a tool in the supervising of his men. Many a man, unsatisfactory in one position, has been transferred to another and has been saved to the company in which he later developed into a valuable employee. The importance of getting the right man for the right job frequently makes transferring a necessity. In times of a labor shortage especially, it may be neces-

sary to try out a man on several jobs before he is properly fitted. Every successful supervisor has long since recognized the danger inherent in discharge, the caution required in making promotions, and the need for effective transfers.

The place of the personnel department in promotions, transfers, and discharges. The responsibility of the supervisor for transfers, promotions, and discharges is a line responsibility. The personnel department can, however, serve in a staff capacity to assist the supervisor in making his decisions because its records are more complete than are those of the supervisor. Records are essential in reaching decisions and in carrying out this responsibility. Frequently openings are available and known only to the personnel department. The supervisor should use the help of the personnel department in reaching his decisions. But the responsibility for the decision is his as far as his own department is concerned, and he must accept this responsibility before the management and the men. This is one of the many places where the spotlight shines on the supervisor, and he can make few mistakes in promotion, transfer, or discharge, or he himself will be marked for similar action by the management.

Conditions giving rise to transfers. There are many conditions that may lead to the transferring of men from one position to another. The need for a transfer may arise from either a contraction or an expansion of the business. As production increases and new shifts are opened up, the supervisor may have to transfer some of his men to the new shift to staff it in part with experienced men. Transfers may arise as a result of a shortage of skilled men in a department where skilled men are required to fill vacancies. Transfers may develop out of the need in one department for men with special skills when these men are available somewhere else in the organization. Sometimes transfers are made to correct improper initial placement of new employees. Health hazards are another major cause for transfers. If a supervisor sees that a man is endangering his health on a particular job, the supervisor should take immediate action to transfer the man. Interests of employees change and men themselves will ask for transfers to other work in line with their changed interests. It has already been noted that the work of a particular position may change. Frequently the man hired for the position is at first satisfactory, but, through no fault of his own, he can no longer handle the work. This situation may require a transfer of the man to a new position.

Types of transfers. There are two main types of transfers, those for the convenience of the employee and those for the convenience of the company. Reasons for transfers for the convenience of the em-

ployee include these: (1) personal illness, health, or an accident, (2) illness in the employee's family, (3) personal preferences as to shift, hours, and days worked, (4) special desires of the employee. Many employees because of age, injury, or health can no longer do their regular work, yet are still valuable to their company. An employee, due to illness in his family, may request assignment to a shift other than the one he is on. An employee may develop a special desire to learn a trade, to improve his social status such as moving from the factory to the office (this is especially true of women employees), to attend evening school or to adjust a personal situation such as the clashing of personalities between the employee and his supervisor or with other employees. Transfers from one department to another, one position to another, or one shift to another will frequently be required. A supervisor should be on the alert to meet these situations when possible.

Transfers for the convenience of the company arise from (1) a shortage of men in a particular department, (2) a shortage of a particular skill or ability among the employees, (3) the desire to balance production on various shifts, (4) an effort to correct defective placement or defective adjustment of employees (this is also to the advantage of the employee), (5) an attempt to increase versatility of the employees as an aid in stabilizing employment.

Special considerations in transfers. When the transfer of a man is considered, the question of seniority in the old and new departments will arise. There are four types of seniority: company, plant, department, and job although some companies combine plant and department seniority. In some companies, a man transferred loses his departmental seniority but maintains his company seniority. In other companies, if he is transferred from one type of work to another, his seniority is based on his job. On the other hand, in some companies a man is permitted to transfer his departmental seniority. The procedure will depend on the individual company's policy, but the supervisor must expect to encounter questions on seniority in connection with transfers. The questions of earnings will frequently arise when a transfer is under consideration. Where the transfer is for the convenience of the company, a problem of the rate on the new job arises. Will the man work at the beginner's rate the same as a new employee? If the transfer is at the employee's request, is the answer to the previous question the same? If the transferred employee can come up to production standards sooner than a new employee, must he remain at the beginner's rate as long as a new employee would? Sometimes in order to get an employee to consent to a transfer, especially for the

convenience of the company, wage concessions must be made. A special learning rate is frequently paid to an employee on new work when transferred from another position or department. In companies where promotions depend in part or entirely on seniority, the transferred employee may lose his job seniority in his old department yet maintain his seniority for promotional opportunities.

The supervisor's responsibility for transfers. The supervisor is the first person responsible for transfers in his department although he will ordinarily consult the personnel department before he makes radical transfers within his department or recommends the transfer of men to other departments. The supervisor should remember that the physical condition of a man changes. The man may have incurred injury outside his work since he was hired and a physical examination before a transfer is frequently advisable. The supervisor will want to check the past employment record as well as the record of the man with the company. It is important to review the wage rate changes the man has received before making or recommending transfer for him. The records of the personnel department are available and valuable to the supervisor in these important decisions.

Transfers between departments. Where transfers are to be made between departments the responsibility should rest primarily with the personnel department. It is the direct representative of the management and is not especially interested in any particular department except to see that men are so placed that their capacities will be used to the greatest benefit of all concerned. Because the records are available in the personnel department, its representatives can select men with desired qualifications in the shortest time. The supervisor seeking to have men transferred to his department from another department will be wise to go through the personnel department. It is a violation of good organization for one supervisor to deal directly with another supervisor's men who may be seeking a transfer to the first supervisor's department. To do so is almost certain to result in ill feeling between the supervisors. The personnel department exists to solve such problems and should be used. When a supervisor is approached to transfer a man to another department, he should consider both the man's opportunity in the new department and the needs of his own department. The supervisor has a responsibility to every one of his men not to stand in the way of their developing their capacities to the fullest extent. The supervisor has a second responsibility to the company to see that each man's services are most effectively used. The need for cooperation with other departments and supervisors in transfers is ever present. It is a reciprocal relation-

ship and should always be viewed from the standpoint of the greatest advantage both to the company and the men.

Transfers as a tool of supervision. Successful supervisors use transfers as a tool in winning the confidence of their men and in developing leadership. A wise supervisor is always on the lookout for opportunities for his men, opportunities to widen their experiences and to prepare them for future advancement. If a supervisor expects his men to come to him with their requests for transfers, he will have to show them by his actions that he will not stand in the way of their advancement. When a supervisor finds a man in his department going through the personnel department for a transfer without having first consulted him, he should recognize it as a danger signal that he is not fulfilling his responsibility in regard to transfers. He should not hold this against the man, however, but strive to merit the confidence of his men so they will feel free to consult him.

Procedures in transfers. In most companies either the employee or management may initiate the request for a transfer and ordinarily the employee, both supervisors involved, and the personnel department must approve. All the parties to the transfer must recognize that it is essential that the employees' interests and their capacities must be matched against the position that is vacant. Finally, records of transfers are necessary. These records originate in the department from which the transferred employee comes and are approved in the department to which he is transferred; they pass through the payroll department and end in the personnel department. At times the personnel department may originate the records. The record-keeping phase of transfers is important to all the parties concerned and must not be overlooked by any of the parties involved.

The meaning of promotion. The word promotion usually involves a present or expected increase in pay which would not be realized on the old job. It may involve increased social status such as going from the factory to the office or from machine work to inspection. It frequently results in increased responsibilities and recognition and usually is followed by promotion in rank and pay. Sometimes promotion brings only some special privilege such as not having to punch a time clock. There are many who advocate promoting men from within the organization when openings occur rather than hiring new men from the outside. Justice to old and faithful employees requires giving them opportunities to advance when opportunities develop. Promotion from within improves morale and loyalty and should result in increased productivity. Promoting men decreases hiring costs and unemployment compensation costs. The reduced hiring costs, how-

ever, may be more than offset by increased training costs when promotion takes place at a level considerably above the lowest rank. One promotion starts a chain of promotions which result in having to train a number of men instead of one new man hired from the outside for the one vacancy. Nevertheless, the increased training costs may well be justified since it develops a versatile work force, maintains good morale, and enhances the reputation of the company.

Bases for promotion. There are at least three bases on which promotions may be made, namely, seniority, merit, and a combination of merit and seniority. Some organizations use seniority as the sole basis for promotion—the man oldest in the job getting the promotion. In other organizations, merit is the sole basis of promotion—the man who has done the best work getting the promotion. Finally, many organizations have worked out a basis of combining merit and seniority to select men for promotion. The latter plan requires merit ratings, accurate and complete personnel records, and supervisors who understand and conscientiously rate their men at regular intervals.

The experiences of companies which have used seniority as the sole basis for promotion are sufficient to illustrate the disadvantages of this method. It places a premium on service in terms of time alone and tends to destroy initiative. Obviously it places a heavy burden on the personnel department in terms of the original hiring. Merit alone as a basis for promotion raises objections from men who have been employed with a company over a period of time, and are inclined to feel that ability alone should not control, but that service with the company should also be taken into consideration. Merit alone as a basis for promotion may affect both departmental morale and loyalty. On the basis of a combination of merit and seniority, with seniority prevailing when merit is equal, the only disadvantage again is the fact that the best man available may not be selected, for the simple reason that the best man may not be within the organization, hence he cannot be promoted. If a company does follow a plan of filling all positions above the lowest level from within, however, the last plan is the most satisfactory both in terms of bringing results and of being satisfactory to most of the men. The company gains through the use of merit and the employees, at least in part, have their seniority recognized. This plan, however, requires effective use of merit rating and a capable personnel department with detailed records readily available. It is one thing to announce a policy of promoting from within and quite a different thing to carry this plan into effective operation. Such a program requires careful planning and the establishment of adequate procedures to become effective.

The soundest policy in selecting employees for new positions has been found to be to secure *the best possible man for the job from within the organization if he is available, but from the outside if a better man is available there.* The result of this policy is that the men in the organization are kept on their toes because they know that promotion will come only if merited on a competitive basis. Promotion from within, wherever possible, increases morale and loyalty, provides a more versatile working force, and leads to employment stabilization. It is advisable, however, to bring in new blood from the outside periodically and the policy just mentioned brings this result. Promotion solely from within, if constantly followed, is likely to result in an inbred organization, a scarcity of new ideas and methods, and eventual stagnation.

Responsibility for promotion. The supervisor plays a major role in promotions within the department. The training of his men and his understanding of their strong points and their weaknesses, as he corrects the latter and develops the former, are responsibilities to be met by the successful supervisor. Impartially and accurately rating his men and bringing their abilities and capacities to the attention of the management are also essential functions of the supervisor. The supervisor is accountable for recommending men for promotion, for the selection of men qualified for promotion, and for recognizing the necessity for the management, in carrying out the aims of the enterprise, to fill positions with the best qualified men. The supervisor who pushes his men, even when they are not the best qualified for the promotional opportunity, has lost sight of his major responsibility to management. The supervisor who plays favorites in his ratings and selections likewise is not fairly and squarely meeting his responsibility as a supervisor. The successful supervisor trains and develops his men so that when openings occur and his men are qualified to fill these promotional opportunities, he has them ready and management informed as to their capacities. This type of supervisor is recognized both by management and by his men as fulfilling his responsibilities to each.

Between plants or departments, and within the individual department, the personnel department, cooperating with the department head and top management, has a major responsibility for promotions. The complete records of the employee under consideration for promotion are available in the personnel department. The supervisor through ratings and individual comments has made his opinions a part of the employee's records. The personnel department's records include the performances of the individual employees, their interests and capaci-

ties, scores made on various tests, physical examination reports, and their progress through the company in terms of positions held and wage changes. These records must be so filed that they are readily accessible in finding men with special qualifications to fill a specific position.

Some organizations through their personnel departments set up promotion charts, showing the new employee how his job is a part of the line of promotion and what positions above his own are open to him. Other organizations operate an understudy system by which men are trained for positions to which they are promoted as openings occur. Such a method of filling openings with understudies results in the company's usually having capable men ready to step into positions as these positions become vacant. Every supervisor should recognize the advantages of this system since the supervisor himself cannot expect promotion unless someone is qualified to step into his position. The wise supervisor will develop an understudy for his position, bringing the man along carefully, instructing him in the duties and responsibilities of the supervisor's position. The supervisor will likewise develop understudies for the key jobs in his department in order that he may have someone else with training well under way, or even completed, ready to fill vacancies.

Another promotion plan which is widely discussed and which has had a considerable influence on promotion policy is the Gilbreth three-position promotion plan. This plan regards each man as occupying three positions in the organization which are considered as changing constantly in an upward spiral. These positions are: the position the man last occupied in the organization, the position he occupies at present, and the position he will next occupy. In the first position the man is teaching the person who took his place, in the second position he is doing the work of his present job, and in the third position he is being instructed in the next position for which he is being prepared. Thus the man is at the same time an instructor, a worker, and a learner.

Policies on discharges. Policies differ concerning the extent of control of the department head over the discharge of employees. It must be recognized that certain employees and certain conditions give rise to the need for discharge of the offending employee. In the past, discharge in some plants has been indiscriminate and the supervisor has had the power to fire men whenever he chose. *The policy in many organizations today is that the supervisor may discharge an employee only from his department.* In principle this policy is sound; when all concerned carry it out in good faith few, if any, serious disciplinary

situations arise. The personnel officer handling such cases must use great tact to obtain maximum results. The supervisor is jealous of his reputation and so is the employee. Both parties are anxious for a chance to save face. Each man desires not to lose status in the eyes of his associates. It is essential today that the supervisor recognize the need for the exercise of care in the event of discharge. Frequently, however, discharges are not necessary and a transfer of the man to another department or other work will save him to the company and eliminate costs that otherwise would be necessary. An examination of the causes of discharge will reveal many situations where this is true.

Causes of discharges. One cause of discharge is the attitude of the employee. He may be antisocial and present little possibility of being adjusted. If the supervisor has made every effort to change the attitude of the employee and the attitude of the man is definitely hampering the work of the supervisor's department, then the only recourse is discharge or at least a transfer to another department. Many companies have certain rules and regulations which when violated call for discharge. These rules usually are for the protection of the lives of other employees or for the protection of the good name of the company. Lack of capacity of the employee to fill the position for which he was hired is another cause for considering discharge. When the employee has received training, and yet cannot meet the production standards set for his work, he must either be discharged or transferred to another department for which he is suited. When no other position is available he will have to be discharged. Illness leading to incapacity to perform work or an accident resulting in a permanent injury are other causes for discharge of the employee, although this is not discharge in its ordinary sense. A shortage of work and definite knowledge that there will not be enough work to keep the regular force busy are other causes for a permanent layoff. Experience with and an analysis of discharges reveal that the major cause is character traits and not any of the foregoing. Actually some of these causes will occur very rarely. If hiring is properly done incapacity to perform the work will seldom arise, although it may develop later after the man has been with the company for a period of time. If the new employee is properly introduced to his work and informed on company policies, rules, and regulations, he is not likely to violate those which result in discharge. Illness and accidents are only occasionally the cause of discharge. It is the quirks of personality and character that lead to the largest number of discharges. The lack of cooperation, laziness, absenteeism, tardiness, and dishonesty are the chief causes of discharges. The supervisor should study his men for signs of the

beginning of these character traits and should attempt to nip them in the bud by working with the individuals and showing them how to avoid discharge by changing their ways.

Procedures to be observed in discharges. The laws covering unemployment compensation and the National Labor Relations Act make it advisable today to have complete records of all discharges. A written record should be made at the time of discharge setting forth the reason for discharging the man. Whenever possible, this record should be supported by witnesses and evidence, if available. The charges on which the discharge is based should be consistent or the employee may be reinstated over the protest of management and receive back pay for the time he was off the job. When the offense is one other than a serious violation involving the safety and welfare of the company and others, the employee's record and previous ratings should be consulted before discharge. The supervisor should be permitted to discharge from his department only. Final discharge from the organization should be made only after a conference of the employee and a representative of the personnel department. Discharges always have definite effects on the morale and attitude of the men under the supervisor. The supervisor who uses the discharge only as a last resort but then does it firmly and in line with the policies and procedures of his company will retain the respect of his men. The men frequently recognize the need for the discharge of an employee before the supervisor does, and failure of the supervisor to act promptly will only hurt him in the eyes of his men. Undeserved discharges, however, will lower the confidence of the men since they are likely to know all the facts of the case and are able to evaluate the supervisor's action.

The possibilities in demotion. Wherever possible the supervisor, when considering discharge of an employee, should give some thought to demotion of the employee. Discharging a man is often the easy way out whereas demoting him raises problems which the supervisor may not wish to face. Nevertheless there are certain advantages in demotion as opposed to discharge. When a man has been with the company for some length of time, the company has an investment in him which is thrown away when he is discharged. A machine is rarely junked, it is rebuilt. Men likewise can be rebuilt but it takes effort and care especially on the part of the supervisor. He must handle the demotion in such a way as to help the man "save his face," and when considering a demotion should attempt to get the man to suggest the change himself. This can often be done if the supervisor will recognize in advance the need for a change in status for the individual.

The supervisor must, however, know the *capacities* and *interests* of the individual well enough to select a job that he can fill successfully. There is no reason for making a demotion which later has to be followed by another. Frequently a demotion and transfer can be effected at the same time.

It is easy to discharge a man that is unsatisfactory, but if the supervisor recognizes his responsibility to management he will first consider the possibilities of a demotion instead of a discharge. Especially if the individual's record with the company has been good in the past but he is unable to perform his work successfully because of conditions beyond his control, such as age, the supervisor may add to his prestige among his men by using demotion rather than discharge.

CHAPTER XIII

SAFETY AND SUPERVISION

The importance of safety to the supervisor. The importance of safety to the supervisor is quite generally recognized in theory yet not so commonly recognized in practice, particularly during periods of rapid expansion. Safety is the thread that runs through the entire supervisory job and to a considerable degree controls the supervisor's success in meeting the demands on him for maximum production. In planning the work of his department, the supervisor must consider the element of safety. As part of any instruction given his men, the supervisor will emphasize safety practices essential to job performance. Winning cooperation from the men in a hazardous enterprise will be difficult if not impossible unless they see that the supervisor is safety-conscious. Unsafe practices by men in his department or by the supervisor himself will lead to grievances; and the quality of morale in his department is based to a considerable degree on the effectiveness of the safety program. Safe practices and quality production move hand in hand and safety is inherent in waste control. Every supervisor with a planned procedure of introducing new employees in his department makes safety a fundamental part of the introductory process. The training of new men in safety and the retraining of old men reduce the costs in wasted materials, equipment, and man-hours lost due to preventable accidents. The successful supervisor recognizes these responsibilities and in meeting them recognizes the effect and influence of a safe workplace on departmental morale, labor turnover, and cooperation.

Some facts and figures. Any consideration of safety carries increased weight when some of the economic facts in relation to industrial accidents are analyzed. The following are actual figures based on the number and cost of accidents in industry during the year 1940. The number of industrial deaths in 1940 equaled 17,000. This exceeds the total number of deaths in many of the great battles of the First World War. It is just as tragic to have a man lose his life in industry as it is to have him die on the battlefield. During the same year there were more than 1,400,000 lost-time accidents for personal injuries in industry. For example, consider the hand injuries in industry. At

least one out of every five hand accidents becomes infected, causing the individual to lose working time while he is receiving treatment. It may be that the man does not consider the injury important enough to go to the first-aid station for treatment. This failure to get treatment often leads to infection, lost time on the part of the individual, and subsequent wastes which could have been eliminated.

The cost of any industrial accident may be divided into two classifications, the direct cost and the indirect cost. Some of the direct costs are the wages paid the man during his absence while his services are lost to the company and the medical and insurance costs to the company. It has been estimated that the direct costs, in so far as they are measurable, were approximately $700,000,000 for 1940. The indirect costs include the costs of loss of time by other employees in the department, decreased morale, lowered quality, replacement of the injured man, cost of records, expenses to the individual which he otherwise would not have incurred, wages lost, and supervisory time required to care for the injured and to make provision for his work. It has been estimated that the indirect costs of industrial accidents in the United States are four times the direct costs or, in 1940, approximately $2,800,000,000, bringing the total accident cost for 1940 to $3,500,000,000. When the supervisor studies these facts and figures and understands them, he will need no further information to impress him with the importance of accident prevention.

Losses due to illness of the employee. Statistics on accidents in industry are readily available, but the direct and indirect losses in industry resulting from illness and absence growing out of illness due to the employee's occupation are not available. Some estimates place the lost time arising from disabling illness as high as two per cent, and, for every person incapacitated because of illness, at least two others were handicapped because prevalent or chronic diseases reduced their efficiency ten to fifty per cent.[1] The few studies that have been made public show that time lost because of illness and nonindustrial accidents is about twelve times as great as the time lost because of industrial accidents.[2] Absenteeism due to industrial or occupational diseases probably does not exceed 3 per cent of the total absenteeism; nevertheless, neglect associated with occupations may be a contributing factor to illness not directly associated with the occupation.[3]

[1] National Industrial Conference Board, *Studies in Personnel Policy*, 17, "Medical and Health Programs in Industry," New York, page 21; also see W. S. Rankin, "The Economics of Medical Service," *American Journal of Public Health*, April, 1929, page 360.

[2] National Industrial Conference Board, *op. cit.*, page 21.

[3] Scott, Clothier, Mathewson, and Spriegel, *Personnel Management*, page 381.

Causes of industrial accidents. An analysis of industrial accidents reveals that 87 per cent of all accidents in industry involve some unsafe act. This analysis when broken down, reveals the following: unnecessary exposure to danger, 26 per cent; improper use of or unsafe tools, 16 per cent; non-use of safety devices, 15 per cent; unsafe loading or arrangement of equipment, 10 per cent; operating at unsafe speed, 7 per cent; working on moving equipment, 6 per cent; improper starting or stopping, 5 per cent; other unsafe actions, 2 per cent; and no unsafe act, 13 per cent. Analyzing industrial accidents in another way reveals that 78 per cent of all industrial accidents have some mechanical or material cause. However, at least 80 per cent of all the accidents are humanly created, whereas only 20 per cent of the total industrial accidents may be analyzed from the viewpoint of personal and mechanical causes. Among the personal causes are: lack of knowledge and skill, 48 per cent; improper attitude, 31 per cent; bodily defects, 3 per cent; no personal cause, 18 per cent. The mechanical causes broken down include: hazardous arrangements, 34 per cent; defective agencies, 18 per cent; unsafe apparel, 15 per cent; improper guarding, 9 per cent; improper light or ventilation, 2 per cent; and no mechanical cause, 22 per cent.[4]

Indirect costs of accidents. The indirect costs of accidents cover more ground than the average supervisor suspects. There are many items included in these indirect costs that are seldom fully considered when thinking of accidents. Either the employee loses his wages while he is off, owing to an accident, or, if the company pays him for lost time, the company loses the amount of the wages. In either case a loss results. In addition there is the cost to the company resulting from other employees stopping their work at the time of an accident, out of curiosity, out of sympathy, to assist the injured employee, to investigate the cause of the accident, to arrange for the employee's production to be carried on by another employee, to select and train a new employee to replace the injured man, and finally to prepare the necessary reports and in some instances to appear before an industrial commission. Another indirect cost is the time spent on the case by a first-aid attendant and possibly by members of the hospital staff when this time is not compensated by insurance. An accident often results in injury to equipment as well as to individuals, and costs mount owing to losses in production, failure to fill orders on time, and the loss of bonuses to the group. There are the costs under employee welfare and benefit systems.

[4] See National Safety Council, *Accident Facts*, 1939, page 19.

There is the cost of continuing the injured employee's wages not only while he is off but also when he returns and is not completely recovered and may for a time be worth to departmental production only about half his normal value. Then there is the cost of subsequent injuries that occur as a consequence of the excitement or weakened morale which results from the original accident. The supervisor is responsible for costs in his department and accident costs amount to far more than the supervisor realizes especially when these indirect costs are taken into consideration. Realizing the amount indirect costs add to the direct costs of accidents, the supervisor must take every action within his power to control and to avoid accidents in his department.[5]

The classification of accidents. Before considering the supervisor's responsibility for safety, it is well to understand the three broad classifications into which accidents fall, namely, mechanical causes, physical condition of the men, and mental attitude. Accidents falling under the classification of mechanical include those caused from the operation of machinery, lack of guards, goggles breaking, poor condition of machinery or accessory equipment. Accidents which would be classified under those due to the physical condition of the men include those caused by lack of ventilation, improper temperatures, lack of sanitary conditions, and fatigue. Accidents classified as due to mental attitude include those resulting from ignorance, disobedience, carelessness, and a desire to show off before others.

Management's responsibility in relation to these three classifications. Management, of which the supervisor is a part, has a direct responsibility for controlling and eliminating those causes within its power of the accidents falling into these three classifications. Accidents due to mechanical causes can be attacked by keeping the machines in good repair, providing adequate guards, and seeing that they are used, and insisting that proper procedures be followed in the use of machines and attachments. Where clamps are provided to hold a piece of wood in the proper position during a shaping operation, the supervisor must insist on its use. Again there must be insistence on using proper speeds and tools as they are specified for the various operations.

Management's responsibility to the men for providing satisfactory working conditions has been recognized for many years, even to the extent that many states have enacted legislation specifying certain minimum standards. The savings due to air conditioning in many plants have been recognized in increased production from the em-

[5] See H. W. Heinrich, *Monthly Labor Review*, Vol. 31, No. 5.

ployees. The control of temperature, proper lighting, and ventilation have also been found to pay their way. Too often, however, the effect of fatigue and its place in working conditions have been overlooked. Accidents due to the physical condition of the men, especially fatigue, are greater than is realized. Statistics bear out the fact that a man becomes careless as he becomes tired. On the 7:00 A.M. to 5:00 P.M. shift in one large plant, the accident record was found to be as follows:

7:00 A.M. to 8:00 A.M.	5	1:00 P.M. to 2:00 P.M.	7
8:00 A.M. to 9:00 A.M.	9	2:00 P.M. to 3:00 P.M.	10
9:00 A.M. to 10:00 A.M.	11	3:00 P.M. to 4:00 P.M.	13
10:00 A.M. to 11:00 A.M.	14	4:00 P.M. to 5:00 P.M.	16
11:00 A.M. to 12:00 M.	15		

It is obvious from the data presented above that fatigue is a vital factor in causing accidents. Although various plant experiences may differ from the exact figures above, the trend is likely to be the same. The supervisor, recognizing the relationship between fatigue on one hand and accidents on the other, will govern his action accordingly. He will caution his men to be more careful as the dangerous hours approach, he will watch them to see that they are more careful. Many companies have found that a successful way to counteract this tendency is through the introduction of rest periods, and in many instances the introduction of rest periods has actually increased daily production. Sometimes job rotation is an effective means to meet the approach of fatigue late in the day. Other companies broadcast music to their employees as a means of combating fatigue. The method of meeting fatigue is an individual one and may be met by the supervisor in a variety of ways depending on himself, his department, and the work done there; but he must recognize the need for safety and what happens if he does not meet this responsibility.

Management, including the supervisor, is also in part responsible for accidents caused by employees' having the wrong mental attitude. The alert supervisor recognizes that unsatisfactory mental attitudes on the part of his men are usually his fault and that he must take the necessary steps to remedy such situations. Ignorance is a frequent cause of improper mental attitudes that lead to accidents. Ignorance is due to improper introduction and inadequate instruction of the employee and failure of the supervisor to follow up to see that the individual carries out the instructions given him. Carelessness, often associated with listlessness and frequently with a low I.Q. or emotional instability, likewise leads to mental attitudes which have

been found to be a frequent cause of accidents. "Accident-prone" men are often found to have wrong mental attitudes. One way to correct these attitudes is through developing in the individual interest in and enthusiasm for the job. Men with grievances or with worries about social conditions outside their work are likewise found to be susceptible to accidents. Such individuals are likely to be thinking about things other than their work. When a man is not thinking about what he is doing, accidents are likely to happen when he is working around machines. Then there are the exhibitionists who often have accidents resulting from the act of "showing off." The man who wants to show off, violating safe practices in order to attract attention to himself, may often be cured by being given the responsibility of serving on a safety committee.

The supervisor himself must be sold on safety. When a supervisor has the idea that safety does not pay he may rest assured that his men will ignore safe practices. Men follow their supervisor, they act and frequently think as he does. *When the supervisor is safety-conscious the men will be safety-conscious.* One unguarded remark by the supervisor will tear down the morale of a department and, likewise, statements by the supervisor reflecting a sound attitude toward safety will keynote the attitude of his department. Even though the supervisor may not think it necessary for his men to go to the first-aid station to have small injuries dressed, he will be wise to let them go anyway, if for no other reason than the effect on the attitude of the rest of the department. Many companies today insist that, no matter how small, every injury be attended to and reported, and that the supervisors be responsible for seeing that this policy is carried out. Such a policy makes the men safety-conscious and is not merely designed to check up on how many minor injuries there are in a department but to sell the need for safety and prompt attention to injuries no matter how small. Too often the small injuries develop into serious infections with subsequent loss of time leading to direct and indirect costs that are considerable.

One large company with many plants scattered throughout the country found the best plant safety record in one of its most poorly equipped plants. The reason was that the plant manager was a "nut on safety" and his men followed his leadership. He lived safety, preached safety, practiced safety, and got results in spite of an unsatisfactory equipment situation. Some companies use bonuses as an incentive for maintaining safety records. One organization found the best place to start its safety program was as part of its apprenticeship program. This grew out of discovering that the older men criticized

the younger boys who asked that minor cuts be treated. Effort was concentrated where it could do the most good, on the youngsters themselves. Their example plus strong supervision finally brought the older men into line.

It is a good idea for every supervisor to examine the safety records in his department. It has been emphasized that records in and of themselves are useless; they must be used. Most plants keep detailed accident records to meet the requirements of industrial commissions and insurance companies. The supervisor should study these records seeking information that will aid him in his safety program and learning the facts that he needs to control the accidents in his department. Frequently an analysis of the accidents will direct his attention to causes which might otherwise be overlooked. The supervisor who finds that his department has a large number of men being treated for infections may be certain his men are not reporting and receiving treatment for small cuts and abrasions. In one plant it was found that the number of accidents leading to hernias was out of all proportion. A further examination of the men who had been so injured showed that in almost every case they were working on one of two jobs. These jobs were studied and each was found to have an awkward lifting operation which resulted in a large number of ruptures. Steps were taken to change the equipment and the operation, and this type of accident was eliminated immediately.

Which are more important—safeguards or safety education? The question has long been argued which are more important—proper safeguards or safety education. Many supervisors are found who feel that it is only necessary to provide proper safeguards and safety will take care of itself. This is the easy way but it does not get results. On the other hand, education alone is a long, slow process and immediate results are desirable in accident reduction. Although safety education is more important than safeguards, *both are required in a well-rounded program,* however if a choice is to be made, the former is preferred unless, through guards, the operation can be made foolproof. To maintain a good safety record in his department, the supervisor needs a combination of safety training and safety devices. If a man has a sound background in safety training, it will enable him to guard against hazards where safety devices are impractical. The supervisor will find it is necessary to instruct a man in the use of safeguards, explaining why as well as how they should be used. How many supervisors have seen a man shut off the power on a machine and then walk away from it before it has stopped turning over? This is an example of the man who uses the safeguard but

does not understand or know why he uses it, or in rare cases the man may just be careless. Nevertheless, for the protection of other men in the department as well as the department's production, it is the supervisor's responsibility to see that such actions do not happen again.

The place of the engineering department in a safety program. In analyzing accidents, after the supervisor has used his records and determined the causes and his subsequent path of action, it is likely that he will need to consult with and even enlist the aid of the engineering department. Causes of accidents may be due to lack of guards, and the engineering department is best suited to design the type of guard that will most effectively safeguard the employee and at the same time least interfere with production. It may be necessary to modify the design of the machine to eliminate the hazard or to change the machining or processing of the product to reduce the opportunities for accidents. In one plant the manufacture of one of the parts later assembled into the completed product was a dangerous operation and there seemed no way to avoid the accidents which occurred in that department. The engineering department was called in by the superintendent, who had an idea of the necessary changes but who had neither the time nor the skill to perfect the method. After considerable analysis and research, a new manufacturing process was developed that not only took most of the hazard out of the manufacture of that part but also eliminated many steps previously thought necessary, thereby speeding up the manufacturing process and reducing costs. Too many supervisors fail to use their staff departments to the fullest extent. The engineering and the safety departments should be used constantly by the supervisor to assist him in protecting his men and building morale. In the long run safe practices will lower costs and increase production—two of the ultimate aims of effective supervision.

As part of his responsibility for safety the supervisor will develop cooperation with the safety department and members of its staff that may be assigned to his department. These men are specialists in recognizing operations which involve hazards and in recommending safeguards which will eliminate these hazards. They can be used by the supervisor in his program of safety education among his men; they will not do the supervisor's work but will assist him and provide him with methods and techniques of training his men in safety. The safety department, like the inspection department, is a staff department to be used by the supervisor. It is not, as so many supervisors think, one more obstacle in the way of his running his

department as he pleases. Cooperation with staff departments which assist the supervisor in specialized functions will pay him dividends, and the wise supervisor uses these departments to their fullest extent.

Steps the supervisor follows in handling safety. Many supervisors have found that there are certain logical steps they can follow in meeting the responsibility for safety within their departments. These steps are the same ones found to be successful in meeting his other responsibilities, namely, to organize, to deputize, and to supervise. Organizing involves: (1) collecting facts on accidents and interpreting the causes of these accidents, (2) cooperating with the safety department and its representatives, (3) appointing and using a safety committee within his department, and (4) giving adequate instruction and training in safety to his men. He deputizes by: (1) giving his subordinates the responsibility and accompanying authority to see that the men follow standard practices and procedures, (2) instructing them in the methods to be used and the techniques to be used to follow up instruction, and (3) giving the necessary orders to the departments responsible for installation of the necessary safeguards. His final step of supervising includes: (1) seeing that his subordinates and his men know what should be done, why it should be done, and that they do it, (2) following up his men and his subordinates to see that the details are not overlooked and that the broad objectives are attained, (3) checking his safety educational program to see that the right methods are used and that it is getting across to the men, (4) analyzing the accident records in his department, (5) setting an example to his men by his own actions by being safety-conscious, and (6) being qualified to administer first aid himself.

In an earlier chapter the advantages of using the committee form of organization were pointed out. The supervisor can use the committee to good advantage in his safety work. It serves to maintain interest in safety among the men bringing the responsibility for safety down to their level while taking advantage of their experience and knowledge of the processes and of the machines which they and their fellow employees operate. The committee can also be more effective even than the supervisor when it comes to enforcing such safety practices as wearing goggles and safety shoes, and the use of other safety devices. The use of the committee spreads the supervisor's responsibility for safety among the men and assists him in carrying out his safety program. Properly used, a safety committee increases the men's attention to safety and multiplies the supervisor's efforts to get safe practices across.

Safety is largely a matter of details. The supervisor should not

only see to it that his department has proper fire protection but that the fire extinguishers are conveniently located and filled at all times. He should maintain a first-aid station convenient to his department, or if this is not possible, see that the first-aid box is readily accessible, properly equipped, and ready for use at all times. He must see to it that his men have safety shoes and goggles and that they are worn. Oftentimes a man does not wear shoes or goggles because they do not fit properly or because he feels that they hamper his work. It is the supervisor's responsibility to see that the shoes and goggles are right and then that they are worn constantly. The supervisor will do well to inspect the equipment periodically to see that the guards work and that they actually do eliminate the hazard for which they were designed. Frequently with his wider knowledge he will see additional hazards that must be guarded but which have been overlooked by his safety committee or even the safety department. Where the supervisor has a large department with a considerable number of machines he will be wise to see that traffic aisles are maintained and their use enforced. It is easy for a man to fall over stray materials and to have an arm or leg caught in moving machinery.

The supervisor must constantly vary his instructional methods used in safety education, never letting up on safety for one minute. He must maintain interest in his safety program and he will be wise to study the methods of successful advertisers, using the approach of getting the men's interest, holding it, selling them, and keeping them sold. He will keep his methods and materials on the level of the intelligence of his men, developing his appeals according to their interests and ambitions. Safety, like instruction, must be constantly followed up. No supervisor ever met his responsibility for safety by instructing his men in safety and then by dropping it.

Successful procedures and methods. There are many procedures and methods that have been found successful by supervisors in putting across safety programs. As a part of proper safeguards, the supervisor can use many or all of the following: (1) safety devices that actually safeguard the operator, (2) proper ventilation, (3) proper lighting, (4) proper sanitation, (5) proper fire protection—adequate care in handling explosives and inflammable materials, (6) elimination of such risks as open elevator shafts, unprotected wells, and rickety ladders, (7) frequent and regular inspection of machines to eliminate or to guard unsafe conditions, (8) eye protection, goggles on every man and shields on every wheel, (9) safe clothing, safety shoes, gloves and aprons, (10) traffic safeguards—signals, mirrors, steps, aisles, etc., (11) properly located first-aid stations or kits,

(12) good housekeeping. Most of these have already been covered but mention of good housekeeping may require some explanation. Too few supervisors realize the effect of a clean and orderly department on their safety record. Dirt and grease on the floor cause accidents; materials piled in aisles or otherwise out of place contribute to accidents; and tools that are left lying on the floor or are out of place and require searching for are a frequent cause of accidents. The successful supervisor whose safety record is good is always found to have a department that is clean and orderly. When the men have been instructed in and indoctrinated with the principles of good housekeeping as part of their introduction and instruction they will be found to be safe as well as careful and productive employees.

The supervisor will find the following procedures and methods helpful in developing the educational side of his safety program education: (1) talks and bulletins, (2) analysis of the facts on accidents and telling the men what results the analysis shows, (3) movies and slide films, (4) posters dramatizing the result of unsafe acts, (5) proper instruction in the safe methods of doing their work, (6) safety committees whose work is organized and supervised, (7) safety campaigns, (8) organized courses in safety such as first aid and safety practices, (9) fire drills, and (10) inspections of equipment and guards.

Summary. Summarizing the supervisor's responsibility for safety it can be said that *safe practices are largely the result of the attitudes of the men, and these attitudes are based almost wholly on the supervisor's actions and leadership.* Guards, whether they are machine guards or goggles, are worthless unless used. The supervisor's most productive effort is often related to analysis of causes and taking action in the light of the causes. Much of the effect of safety publicity, contests and campaigns is wasted because they are not tied in with cause and effect. The supervisor must set an example in his attitude toward safety. Training and instruction correctly presented and constantly followed up are more effective than publicity or talk.

CHAPTER XIV

PROMOTING COOPERATION BETWEEN MEN AND BETWEEN DEPARTMENTS

The need for cooperation. In modern industry the individual department or group cannot successfully stand alone. The thoughtful executive is keenly aware that *his success is in reality group success.* Effective action in his department is to a considerable extent dependent on the cooperation of his men. Planning alone is not enough; cooperation is essential to translate the planning into action to obtain maximum results. Although a supervisor may drive his men and secure blind obedience in turning out some work, if he is to utilize their capacities to the greatest extent, he must have their cooperation. Ability to develop and maintain cooperation within the department is one of the attributes of positive leadership, replacing the need for driving and making the supervisor's work much easier. Equally important to the supervisor is gaining the confidence of the supervisors of other departments with which he and his men work.

Departments must also cooperate with each other and this cooperation depends to a high degree on the supervisors who head the respective departments. Every production department, to meet the production standards set for it, must have cooperation from the maintenance department, from the departments preceding and following it in the production line, from the materials supply department and many other departments within the organization. Essentially the same methods and the same approach may be employed to win cooperation from other departments as are used to secure the cooperation of the men within the department.

The nature of cooperation. The word cooperation is made up of two parts, "co" meaning *with* and "operation" meaning *doing.* Therefore the word cooperation means *doing with.* Too often men seeking cooperation think of it as meaning doing for. Cooperation refers to the *act of working or operating with someone,* not the act of working for someone. The *with* of cooperation implies willingness whereas the *for* does not necessarily mean willingness and may even imply coercion or force. An essential in cooperation is the factor of willingness to work with others. Cooperation is not given for the asking; it can only arise out of situations that give satisfactions to the individual

and the group. Many a supervisor sets out to win cooperation, overlooking the fact that the way must first be paved. The conditions under which cooperation arises must be created, but before the conditions that are necessary to the development of cooperation are considered the essential characteristics inherent in cooperation should be examined. The characteristics essential to cooperation include: (1) a common purpose, (2) recognition of the mutuality of interests, (3) working together to achieve that common purpose, and (4) submergence of individual interests at least temporarily to achieve the greater personal objective.

Both the supervisor who seeks cooperation and the men with whom he works and whose cooperation he desires must first recognize the common purpose of the enterprise. Both must realize that their long-term objectives are the same, successful operation and continued life of the organization. Too often the supervisor overlooks the need for showing his men that they are part of the organization and that the purpose of the organization is also their purpose. This is one of the many reasons why the supervisor must interpret company policies impartially and completely to the men and then follow up to see that there is a continued and complete understanding by his men of the company policies in relationship to the purpose of the organization. The interests of the men, the supervisory force, and the management are the same in the long run, and all three groups succeed or fail together. The supervisor must constantly strive to keep this fact before his men. Much of the trouble between management and men during the past years can be traced to the failure of both to recognize the fact that fundamentally their interests were the same. Primarily, the task of spreading the doctrine of mutuality of interests is the responsibility of the supervisor since he is closest to the men and at the same time he knows and represents management's viewpoint.

Recognition of the common purpose of the enterprise and the mutuality of interests inevitably leads to the act of cooperation. This recognition paves the way and serves as the stepping stone but the act of continued cooperation must be developed. The act of cooperation involves submergence of individual interests temporarily at least in order to achieve a greater institutional objective. The individual, whether the supervisor or one of the men, must recognize that his long-range interests are paramount, and it may be necessary for him to sacrifice his short-range interests at times for the sake of the ultimate objective. Sometimes *operating with* means doing it the other fellow's way. When this way means achieving the common purpose and when the interests of both are the same, doing it his way or submerging one's ideas in his method produces cooperation.

The conditions necessary for cooperation involve a recognition of the common purpose and a conscious submergence of temporary self-interest in order to accomplish the given purpose. Cooperation demands *knowledge, identification,* and *action* on the part of the individual. He must first know the common purpose, then he must identify himself with it, and finally he must take action to make the common purpose a reality. The supervisor must not only know the purpose but also see that his men know it and that it is kept before them constantly by his actions and his speech. He must show them that he is identified with it and that they are also. It is relatively easy for the supervisor to get a man to work *for him* but what counts is having the man work willingly *with him.* The man who only *works for him* will work only when the supervisor or his representative is around; the man *working with* the supervisor will work just as well when the supervisor is away. The third condition necessary to cooperation is the act of doing the thing that is recognized as what should be done. This is something more than blind obedience, it is action with both parties working together intelligently and effectively, each contributing his own ideas and methods to achieve the common purpose. The nature of cooperation can be summed up by saying that it is the act of *working together willingly and intelligently to achieve a common purpose.*

Cooperation is essential. The unaided individual is almost helpless when struggling alone against the forces of man or nature. Cooperation among individuals began with the dawn of history and has been a major factor in the development of civilization. Today cooperation in industry is essential owing to the interdependence of individuals, departments, groups, companies, industries, areas, and even nations. Our entire economic life is dependent on the principles of specialization, and cooperation is inherent in specialization. If it were possible for one man to perform all the operations in the processing of a raw material into a finished product, cooperation would not be so important, but this method is no longer practical today. Consider the automobile for an example. The rubber comes from another continent, the wool used in the upholstery and the copper in the wiring come from different parts of this country. The steel in the body and many of the parts come from other companies and even other industries. The distribution of a car requires cooperation between manufacturer and dealer. The government must cooperate with the automobile industry and vice versa. The degree of cooperation necessary between the farmer and the employees in the factory is obvious. The principle of specialization is not new but the broad application of it has come only recently and its recognition and use

demand effective application of the principles of coordination and cooperation. Cooperation is not something just to talk about—it is vital and essential to successful operations of any kind. Through it individuals as a group are capable of accomplishing far more than they could accomplish individually.

Cooperation and the individual. The primary unit in cooperation is the individual. Therefore, to win the cooperation of his men as well as other supervisors and his superiors, the supervisor must understand the characteristics of the individual. As an individual, man possesses certain urges that are competitive rather than cooperative and it is necessary to learn to submerge these desires to the common purpose. When he learns this the individual will find his work progressing a great deal more smoothly. Until men as nations learn to submerge temporarily their urge for short-term gains and strive only for the long-run good there will always be wars. If all the armaments in the world were scrapped and men did not learn this fact there would still be strife. Contracts between men and management are only successful to the degree that both sides likewise submerge their short-run interests, recognize the common purpose and their mutuality of interest and cooperate by working with each other.

The original basis of cooperation among men was self-preservation and from the primitive tribe down to large-scale industry today experience has taught that the self may be extended and more satisfactions in goods and services may be realized through cooperation, especially within certain broad areas of human effort, than through unbridled strife or competition. Seemingly nations have not yet learned what business and other social groups have learned and selfish interests still continue to exploit man's weaknesses. Yet it has been demonstrated that man can be induced to control his own desires and work with others when he can be led to identify his personal self-interest with others.

The basis of most cooperative effort among individuals is enlightened self-interest. When the supervisor's men realize that their interests are similar to the supervisor's; when he shows his men that he realizes his interests and theirs are identical; when each has thought through his self-interest in terms of the common purpose and the long-range objectives then enlightened self-interest develops and cooperation follows. Actually the supervisor will find that the men derive pleasure from cooperative effort when the results satisfy their wants. Cooperation appeals to the gregarious instincts of men and thus one of the basic urges of the race may be used to prompt them to work together, with each other, and with their supervisor.

Group cooperation. A knowledge of the psychology of group attitudes is essential in understanding the conditions necessary to develop cooperation and the methods of winning cooperation. Among savages the stranger is a common enemy of the tribe. The group has priority over the individual and as such has acquired certain traditions and customs that change slowly and exert a profound influence on its members. Therefore, the supervisor cannot expect cooperation from his group when his actions or requests run contrary to the group traditions and expectations. Group action is seldom a reasoned action but one arising out of a total situation and is definitely influenced by such factors as emotions, sentiments, customs, traditions, physical environment, physical conditions of members of the group, suggestions that harmonize with some other strong influence, and a feeling of oneness. It is enough to note these factors here in our consideration of cooperation as they were enlarged on previously.[1] But the supervisor must not lose sight of the fact that both individual differences and group attitudes play a large part in cooperation. He must recognize, understand, and use them in winning cooperation.

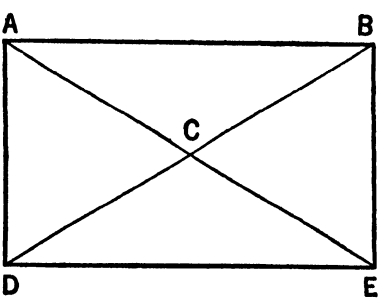
Winning the cooperation of the group. The supervisor, to secure the cooperation of his men, must plan his approach and program to harmonize with the fundamentals of group action. He must make it easy for his group to identify its interests with those of the supervisor. He must show them by word and action that his interests and their interests are the same and he must approach them in such a way that they will freely and easily identify their interests with his. The supervisor must find the easy way not the difficult path for the men to follow in identifying their interests with his. He must recognize that fundamentally men like to work together for a common purpose because it satisfies their gregarious instinct. The successful supervisor takes the attitude that his men want to work with him not that they are antagonistic to him, his interests, and the company's interests. Men like to be led by a leader whom they respect and whose leadership is in harmony with group ideals. When the supervisor drives his men he is taking the hard way of accomplishing his departmental objectives when these objectives may be attained easily through cooperation and leadership. Driving men and cooperating with them are totally unrelated. Driving men upsets them and often runs contrary to group attitudes and objectives. Leadership recognizes and takes advantage of the group attitudes to win and develop cooperation. A group will subordinate some of its desires as long as it has faith in the integrity of its leaders and the leadership of these men does not require too much sacrifice of group objectives. The

[1] See Chapter VIII.

supervisor who is a strong leader can get the group to submerge some of its interests but has to be careful not to ask too much or attempt it too rapidly. When the supervisor can show the group that doing the job his way and working with him will accomplish the group's basic objectives, then the group will consciously practice self-denial. But they must see results and this takes strong leadership built on a sound foundation of knowing the group and having its confidence.

Specific factors in promoting group cooperation. There are some specific factors which, when present in the proper balance, promote group cooperation. These factors may be considered together, however, too much of one and too little of another will unbalance the departmental attitude and fail to lead to cooperation between the supervisor and his men. Satisfactory working conditions are an essential factor and the underlying foundation of cooperation, for without these continued cooperation cannot develop. Lighting conditions must be correct, proper heating and ventilation must be maintained. Steps must be taken to meet fatigue and monotony in the work of the individual and the group. The production records of many companies who have increased output and raised employee morale by introducing rest periods and playing victrola records for the employees while they are working present ample evidence of the effect of attacking fatigue and monotony in working conditions. The supervisor who sees that his equipment is maintained in good condition, that tools and materials are available and in the right quantity when needed, and that the work is planned and carried through on a smooth schedule will find that he is on the road to securing cooperation. Another factor leading to cooperation is making institutional information available to the men. The supervisor should pass along to his men all the pertinent information available to enable them to know what is expected of them and why. Telling men the *what* and *why* of their work, showing them the common objective of the company, the department, and themselves is another long step toward cooperation. Yet another factor promoting group cooperation is continual training of men to develop and prepare them for increased responsibilties and new skills. A poorly trained group usually has a low morale. When the supervisor is training his men for better paying positions, and his men see fellow employees advance to better jobs, they usually show their appreciation by effective cooperation. When employees know their supervisor strives to give them that degree of proficiency in the normal skills and knowledge of processes that will enable them to perform to the standards set for them, those employees *willingly work with* or cooperate with their supervisor to achieve the desired standards.

Causes of employee attitudes. Every supervisor should recognize the causes and effects of employee attitudes since these attitudes are of major importance to the supervisor in planning his program to develop and hold the cooperation of his men. An individual's attitude is conditioned by his present personal situation, his social situation, the work situation, as well as his past and expected future in relation to these various situations. An unreasonable action by an employee can usually be explained by a past experience as it touches on a present problem. Few supervisors realize the many factors that affect the attitudes of their employees. Faced with a reprimand for poor work a new employee may react in a specific way because he sees in his new supervisor the same type of individual as his last supervisor whom he disliked. His attitude is thus affected by his past environment. The employee who has been the victim of kidding during the lunch hour may have developed a sullen attitude that comes out in his contact with his supervisor. How often the phrase "he got out on the wrong side of bed" is applied to an employee. This is only another way of saying that the personal situation controlled the attitude of the employee. Unsatisfactory home affairs condition the attitude of many an employee. Likewise, the social life of an employee affects and may control his attitude toward his work and his supervisor. The man who spends the evening with friends who are making more money or who hold more responsible positions than he may go to work the next day with a chip on his shoulder because of his lack of prestige in the eyes of his friends. These factors may become interwoven with each other, developing a complicated attitude pattern. The schematic arrangement below illustrates the various factors that enter into the reactions of an individual.



A. Possible cause, either environmental or as stated by individual.
B. Individual's behavior or acts.
C. Personal reference, sentiments, desires, etc.
D. Social past of the individual.
E. Social present of the individual.[2]

[2] Adapted by permission from *Management and the Worker*, F. J. Roethlisberger and William J. Dickson, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1940, page 282.

Too often the supervisor will lay the blame for an employee's actions on causes that are far removed from the real ones. Often the employee himself will blame his actions on causes that are not the real ones. In many cases the employee does not realize what the real cause of his action was. It may be based on some incident that happened far back in his past employment experience. The need for the supervisor to understand the causes of employees' attitudes and their effects on his winning and holding cooperation with his men results in the need for our repeating again that the supervisor should constantly study and understand his men not only as employees but also as individuals. No supervisor who thinks of his men as similar to machines will get far since the human being is a very complicated personality and must be studied as such. Understanding the attitudes of his men and guiding these attitudes into channels of cooperation is one of the major tasks of the supervisor.

Effect of the supervisor's attitude. The attitude of the supervisor influences the attitude of his men and he must recognize this effect on his men. His attitude serves either as a magnet to attract the cooperation of his men or as a repellent which results in competition and antagonism. It is rare indeed that the supervisor's attitude is neutral. To attract cooperation the supervisor's attitude must be based on absolute honesty and impartiality, supported by the strength of knowing the requirements of the job, having carefully planned the program with a positive approach to the men. The supervisor may well examine his own attitude based on a knowledge of the causal relationships in attitude development. This self-examination will not only help him to understand himself better but it may also lead him to strive to develop a different attitude as well as to change his approach to his men.

To control these factors which promote cooperation the supervisor may well use a check list. The sample at the end of this chapter has been used very effectively.

Factors for the supervisor to consider in winning cooperation. There are many factors the supervisor should consider in planning his program to win the cooperation of others. A knowledge of his men is essential in carrying out the responsibility for cooperation just as it is essential in meeting so many of the other responsibilities of the supervisor. He must recognize the principle of individual differences and apply it with his knowledge of his men's desires, capacities, and interests to bring about cooperation of his men with him and with each other. Every successful supervisor is a good personnel man recognizing that good personnel work promotes cooperation. The

little courtesies and considerations are the foundations upon which loyalty are built and out of loyalty comes cooperation. Courtesy to men and women employees is one sure step toward winning their cooperation.

The supervisor who has learned the way to win his men's cooperation consciously or unconsciously applies the basic principle of "square dealing." Both men and supervisors almost universally subscribe to this principle but difficulties arise in putting it into practice. It is well to recognize that this does not mean exactly the same treatment for every employee but rather the appreciation of the same honest approach to the situation in the light of the individual differences. All solutions must be based on applying the company's policies in the light of this basic principle. Uniformity and impartiality are important yet they do not require identical treatment. To apply this principle with equity is a test of real leadership.

Clear thinking and careful planning are required if the supervisor is to win and hold the confidence of his men. The successful supervisor has a well-balanced and integrated personality based on a clear analysis of his responsibilities. He does not merely wish for or ask for cooperation but plans his work and deliberately conducts himself so as to create conditions that promote cooperation. *Difficult problems are seldom solved on the spur of the moment, as they arise, but are resolved by the application of principles and procedures that have been worked out in advance.* He knows where he is going and how to get there. Men like to follow a leader when they recognize that he is headed in the right direction. Effective headwork will eliminate much footwork. *Cooperation,* like loyalty and morale, *is a by-product of satisfactory relationships.* Satisfactory relations grow out of planning, planning the work of the department so that it flows smoothly, and planning the supervisor's own program so that he has time to study and to know his men as well as to give them an opportunity to learn to know him.

In the process of developing cooperation the supervisor must recognize the influence of group attitudes and not only understand the principles of group action that have been discussed previously but also be prepared to utilize this knowledge in his handling of his men. He must remember too that men are "feeling" as well as "thinking" individuals and that both the group and the individuals of which it is composed are often guided by their sentiments and emotions rather than by their minds. Because the supervisor tries to think through his problem, basing his action on logical conclusions he cannot expect his men to do the same when the logic of the situation runs con-

trary to the group standards and traditions. The logic of a situation may point clearly to full production thus eliminating the restriction of output, yet restriction may still be practiced. The wise supervisor will prepare himself for reactions from his men based on feelings and emotions rather than cold logic. While recognizing that the influence of the group may be against him at times, the supervisor will also remember that the group would rather be *with* him than *against* him provided he creates conditions favorable to cooperative effort.

There is no formula for effective leadership yet leadership is required of every supervisor who expects to weld his group of men into an effectively cooperating unit. Leadership is a dynamic force that may be marshalled from many directions. It is made up of many elements and yet supervisors with widely varying personalities develop it as part of their supervisory equipment. But in every instance one thing is present, namely, the dynamic element. Dynamic leadership means having power or strength to achieve as the result of a singleness of purpose and an integrated personality. The supervisor as a leader should be physically alert as well as mentally alive.

The supervisor must recognize the common purpose of the enterprise and likewise see that his men understand the objective of the enterprise before he can expect cooperation. This demands that the men are thoroughly trained in the requirements of their work and that constant follow-up takes place to determine the need for retraining. Recognizing the common purpose likewise requires constant indoctrination of the men in company policies.

Giving credit where credit is due is another factor in winning cooperation. The supervisor who sees that his men get the credit due them for the work they do and the ideas they develop will take a long step toward gaining their cooperation. Supervisors who have won cooperation from their men are men who use authority sparingly and display it never. When the supervisor makes it possible for his men to get out their production on time and up to standard he is forging a tool that brings cooperation. Men willingly cooperate with their supervisor when they know that he does everything in his power to provide them with adequate tools and equipment, adequate materials and an even flow of production, that he recognizes them as individuals and gives credit where it is due.

Setting a good example. The final factor for the supervisor to consider in winning cooperation is setting a good example himself. When his men see that he cooperates willingly with them, with his fellow supervisors and with management, they recognize the desire for cooperation on his part. The supervisor who reveals himself by his ac-

CHECK SHEET FOR THE SUPERVISOR[3]

Check each question—add others if important		Yes	No	What should be done
Is there anything in the job conditions that would hinder rather than help the worker to give creative cooperation?	1. Equipment? 2. Condition of equipment 3. Layout of work place? 4. Flow of material 5. Fatigue—spread of work? 6. Fatigue—length of work period? 7. Lighting? 8. Temperature? 9. Ventilation? 10. Cleanliness? 11. Safety? 12. Rate on job? 13. Hours on job? 14. ? 15. ?			
Is lack of organizational information hindering the worker in cooperating?	1. On machine repair? 2. On tool repair? 3. On safe practices? 4. On shop rules? 5. On wage policy? 6. On policy as to hours? 7. On grievance procedure? 8. On seniority? 9. ? 10. ?			
Is a lack of job skill hindering the worker in giving full cooperation?	1. Not accurate? 2. Lack of uniformity? 3. Low in quantity? 4. Unsafe workman?			

[3] Adapted from material developed for the General Motors Executive Training Program by General Motors Institute.

CHECK SHEET (*Continued*)

Check each question—add others if important		Yes	No	What should be done
Is a lack of job skill hindering the worker in giving full cooperation? (Cont.)	5. Lack of job knowledge? 6. Unfamiliar work? 7. Lack of ability? 8. Lack of experience? 9. ? 10. ?			
Is there anything in the worker's attitude that is hindering rather than helping him to give cooperation?	1. Toward the company? 2. Toward the supervisor? 3. Toward the other workers? 4. Toward any *one* person? 5. Toward wages, hours? 6. Toward type of work? 7. Toward future possibilities? 8. Toward job security? 9. Toward suggestions? 10. ? 11. ?			
Is there anything in the supervisor's (MY) attitude that hinders rather than helps others to cooperate?	1. Toward the company? 2. Toward my job? 3. Toward other foremen? 4. Toward workers? 5. Prejudice against anyone? 6. Favoring anyone? 7. Resent suggestions? 8. Too impatient? 9. Interested in helping others? 10. Willingness to learn? 11. ? 12. ?			

tions is far more convincing than the supervisor who only talks cooperation. The supervisor who is successful in winning cooperation from his men seldom criticizes men in the presence of others. It should be remembered that planned instruction is not criticism and should never be given as such. The supervisor should avoid criticism of others, especially his associates and superiors. Men like to say of their supervisor, "He always has a good word for the other fellow whenever it is possible." *A good practice to follow is to say nothing about a man if it is not possible to say something good about him.* A good supervisor never shirks a task no matter how unpleasant it is to perform. He never puts off a difficult task, but does it with dispatch and gets it over with. At times disciplinary action may be necessary. To be square does not mean that the supervisor must be an easy mark. He expects much of others and he demonstrates by his actions that he expects much of himself. The supervisor who expects a good day's work from his men must show them he too works diligently at his job. Self-discipline precedes the discipline of others. The supervisor must discipline himself by planning his work and working his plan. Men watch their supervisor to see if he conducts himself toward his superiors as he expects them to conduct themselves toward him. In the last analysis dynamic leadership produces cooperation and to be a good leader one must also be a good follower.

CHAPTER XV

REDUCING ABSENTEEISM AND TARDINESS

The supervisor's responsibility for absenteeism and tardiness. The department supervisor as a line officer is responsible for the overall direction of his department. He is constantly faced with the requirement of keeping his working force on the job. Like every other problem that the supervisor faces and must solve, to bring his department up to maximum operating efficiency he must (1) recognize the kind and extent of tardiness and absenteeism and the economic losses that result, (2) analyze the causes of absenteeism and tardiness and discover ways and means of reducing each to a minimum, (3) distinguish between necessary and unnecessary absenteeism and tardiness, and (4) develop techniques for meeting the work situation arising from tardiness and absenteeism. Many supervisors fail to recognize the importance of the actions of their employees both on departmental operations and employee attitudes. Considerable economic loss may result from continued absence or tardiness of employees. Tardiness may be defined as a temporary form of absenteeism having reference to the employee's arriving at his workplace late. Absenteeism consists of an employee's absence from his regular task regardless of the cause. Absenteeism and tardiness, although related, can best be understood if each is analyzed separately.

Economic loss due to tardiness. Although the losses from tardiness depend largely on the frequency with which it occurs and the character of the operation on which the employee works, they are indirect hidden losses which, not easily noticed, may yet amount to a considerable sum. When an employee is late in a plant operating two or three shifts it is frequently necessary to hold over a man from the previous shift at time-and-a-half pay to operate or maintain equipment and continue production. On one-shift operations tardiness results in production loss on a given machine with attendant excessive overhead costs. Delays in handling and processing material occur because employees are late to work and consequently slow up the movement of work from their department to the next department. Frequently delays in meeting production schedules down the line result from the tardiness of men in departments where the work origi-

nates. When men are late other employees must do their work, and since the new employee is not entirely familiar with the work excess scrap and breakage occur.

The supervisor must take time to adjust production and assignments at the beginning of the shift at a time when other work demands his attention, which, when delayed, results in other losses. Tardiness may create additional reports for the supervisor to handle, time-keeping difficulties, and later explanations of the reasons why employee pay checks are less than they expected them to be. These indirect losses in themselves are small, but added together over a period of time they amount to considerable sums. In addition to these losses there are intangible losses growing out of employees' forming bad habits, out of the development of unsatisfactory attitudes, and out of the reduction of employee loyalty and morale.

Types of tardiness. There are two types of tardiness, unavoidable and avoidable. *Unavoidable tardiness* arises from conditions over which the employee, in the exercise of reasonable care, has no control. *Avoidable tardiness* arises from negligence on the part of the employee. Whether an employee's tardiness is avoidable or unavoidable, it is necessary for the supervisor's departmental organization to possess sufficient flexibility to absorb the shock of unexpected tardiness. Tardiness is one of the difficulties for which the supervisor can plan in advance anticipating its occurrence and being prepared to take it in stride avoiding the otherwise probable losses. One of the best preparations for meeting tardiness is a versatile work force with employees trained to handle two or more jobs in the department.

Extent of the supervisor's interest in tardiness. When unavoidable tardiness occurs the supervisor must provide for the work that the employee would normally perform. This requires flexibility in the organization of the department. Otherwise the supervisor has no interest in the individual's tardiness since the cause cannot be removed. In avoidable tardiness the supervisor must recognize group differences. Young women are frequently less punctual than middle-aged women. The differences between single women and married women do not seem pronounced except that occasionally married women with children are tardier. In general the record of men is better than that of women. Young men as a rule are the worst offenders. Married men usually have a better record than unmarried men. Divorced men and women often have worse records in tardiness than others.

Causes of tardiness. There are four major causes of tardiness: accidents, sickness, personal difficulties, and transportation. Accidents to the individual, either in the plant or outside are frequent causes

of tardiness. Accidents to members of his family or others may also result in tardiness. Sickness of the individual, of members of his family, or of others also is a cause of tardiness. Personal reasons are often the cause of men being tardy; household or home duties may delay them and such duties frequently cause the tardiness of married women or widows. Excessive intemperance is another cause of tardiness. Oversleeping, due to excessive fatigue, is another cause of tardiness. Departments working overtime frequently see an increase in the number of late employees. Discontent either with the job or in private affairs is a major cause of tardiness; the employee simply doesn't care if he is not on time. Frequently the first manifestation of discontent or a grievance is tardiness. Transportation delays, breakdowns and accidents, and inclement weather are other causes of tardiness.

Means of reducing tardiness. When the supervisor has determined the cause or causes of tardiness among his employees he can then take steps to eliminate or cure it. When accidents to employees are the most frequent reason for tardiness, the supervisor can intensify the safety program. Accidents in the home are also frequent causes of tardiness. Where illness of employees causes tardiness, the supervisor will do well to check working conditions, heating, ventilation, and possible poisons in the air. He should check the time cards to determine if the tardy employee may be fatigued from too much overtime work. The supervisor may also send the employee to the medical department for a check-up or recommend a visit to the family physician. When the cause of tardiness is personal the supervisor faces his most difficult task. Here is one of the many problems the supervisor is equipped to meet only if he knows his employees well and has their confidence. The best attack on this cause is a frank talk with the offender emphasizing the burden that the employee's tardiness places on his fellow employees.

It is amazing how often the supervisor will find that the tardy person never looked at his tardiness from the viewpoint of its effect on others. In the talk the supervisor can emphasize the need for teamwork in the department pointing out that the success of all the employees depends on the successful operations of each individual employee. It is necessary for the supervisor to point out to an employee immediately and emphatically the need for temperance if the lack of it is a cause for tardiness. Many supervisors explain to their tardy employees the need for making an allowance for minor delays by starting a few minutes earlier. If tardiness arises from discontent the supervisor must immediately take steps to determine

the reasons for the discontent and try to eliminate them. As has been said previously, grievances must be nipped in the bud and the causes eliminated. A supervisor should recognize that in certain cases there may be personal requirements that are legitimate but which, nevertheless, cause tardiness. An unreasonable attitude on the part of a supervisor toward first offenders may result in employees' taking the day off when otherwise they would be only a half-hour late.

Some cures that have been found successful. It should be recognized that each situation must be handled in the light of company policies. The supervisor may not be able to use some of the methods used in other companies. Even the same company may use different methods at different times. Where the supervisor talks frankly with the offender it must be remembered that the first offense should not be overdrawn. As was indicated previously, overemphasizing the first offense may result in turning the tardy person into an absentee. The cure adopted by the supervisor depends on the policies of his company and the individual involved. The supervisor should state the company policies and explain why they were formulated in such a manner. The supervisor must recognize that frequently the employee during the talk may not give the real cause. It is necessary to check into the reasons for the tardiness and try to ascertain all the facts. Handling tardiness affords a real opportunity for the supervisor to exercise leadership and at the same time really to adjust personal situations.

Many companies dock employees for tardiness as, for example, fifteen-minute pay deduction for any tardiness up to fifteen minutes, thirty-minute pay deduction for tardiness ranging from fifteen to thirty minutes, etc. Another device is not to permit the employee to participate in the group bonus for the half-day when the tardiness occurred. Frequently records of tardiness are maintained and used in computing sick leave, vacations, and even profit-sharing bonuses. Some employers reward punctuality by adding a percentage in the form of a bonus to the employee's pay for the pay period. It is doubtful, however, if it should be necessary to reward men for being on time. One method found successful is the system of making all late-comers report to a certain gate, having the men on entering sign a slip which must be countersigned by the supervisor and then sent to the paymaster. Some companies remove time cards from the time clock rack and require a special report to be made out. Bulletin boards have been used successfully to list the names of all persons not tardy for a period of time or in the reverse to list all those persons who have been tardy over the same period of time. Contests can be used to good effect, with shifts, departments, or groups competing

with each other and giving publicity or rewards to the winners. The supervisor can keep records of tardiness and let it be known that these records are considered in the case of layoffs, wage adjustments, and promotions.

In the final analysis tardiness may be the outgrowth of a lowered morale or weak discipline. To correct tardiness the supervisor must realize that the cause, whatever it is, must be removed. Too often the supervisor fails to realize that his attitude and his lack of leadership may be the real cause. If this is true he should take the necessary steps immediately to correct the situation. Tardiness in a department is one of the indications of poor leadership and the supervisor should beware when it begins to become frequent.

Methods of caring for the work of late-comers. Since tardiness may be unavoidable the supervisor must be prepared to meet it. Some of the methods include holding over an employee from the previous shift and paying the employee overtime, transfer of an employee from some machine or operation from which he can be spared temporarily, the use of understudies or trainees, the use of a "flying squadron," and occasionally the carrying of excess employees in the department to take care of emergencies arising from tardiness or absenteeism.

Absenteeism is related to tardiness. Absenteeism is just another form of extended tardiness. Tardiness often leads to absenteeism. When the supervisor bears down too hard on tardiness it will tend to increase absenteeism. Absenteeism consists of an employee's absence from his regular task regardless of the cause. It may be classified in the same way as tardiness, namely, avoidable and unavoidable. In addition there is absenteeism by agreement, such as leaves of absence, vacations, and other special privileges arising out of an employment contract.

Extent of and losses due to absenteeism. The extent of absenteeism and the losses from it are considerably more than realized until the results of statistical surveys are studied. In England in 1934, fourteen days per person were lost from work. According to one survey in the United States employees lost 2.2 days per year due to illness. One company found an average absenteeism of twenty-three days per employee out of three hundred working days. Another company showed an absenteeism record of sixteen days per employee. The state of California recorded a 3 per cent absenteeism on account of illness.[1]

[1] See Gordon S. Watkins and Paul A. Dodd, *The Management of Labor Relations*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1938, page 260, for a more extended discussion of this subject.

The losses due to absenteeism can be analyzed from the viewpoint of losses to the company and losses to the employee. The losses to the company in terms of production include those which normally result from the absence of an employee and those in other departments caused by holding up production somewhere along the line. The losses arise also from the discontent of other employees who find themselves in unusual situations because of the absence of an employee. Idleness of equipment and machines contribute to the losses, and impaired discipline and control also increase them. The cost of carrying extra men may also be considered a debit. Possible losses may be sustained from lower quality when an inexperienced employee replaces the regular operator. There is an increased possibility of accidents and damage to tools and equipment arising from the inexperience of the new employee. It is necessary for the supervisor to devote his time to placing another employee on the work of the absentee and the time of the supervisor is valuable. If men are used from other shifts on overtime the additional pay constitutes a loss. Many of these are indirect costs but added together may amount to a considerable sum especially when multiplied by the number of absentees.

The losses to the absent employees include his wages, the possible loss to the group from the presence of a new man who pulls down the production of the group, possible loss to employees in a subsequent operation arising from a shortage of work in process on which to continue, accidents to new man replacing the absent employee, and possible discontent on the part of the employee who is transferred to take the place of the absent employee. This same discontent may hold for the employees who double up to carry the additional load of the absent individual.

The economic loss from absenteeism amounts to large sums. In industry in general there are wide variations in annual absenteeism. The average number of days of absence including vacations is probably ten or more per employee. If the number of days lost is multiplied by the number of employees in industry and multiplied again by $4.00 (as an average daily wage) a sum of over $1,000,000,000 results as the annual cost of absenteeism to industry. This figure is admittedly low. All this is not actual economic waste but it is safe to say at least half of it, $500,000,000, is unnecessary social and economic loss.

Causes of absenteeism. Some interesting facts regarding absenteeism have been revealed by various surveys. In a study of 10,000 employees of both sexes it was found that the causes of their absences were 40 per cent due to sickness and accident and 60 per cent due to

personal reasons. Unmarried women, in general, lose less time than married women owing to sickness and accidents. Single men lose less time than married men owing to sickness and accidents. Men in general lose less time than women. Sickness and accidents cause more absenteeism among widowed or divorced men and women than among married men and women. There is more absenteeism on Monday than on any other day and it decreases daily until Saturday when absenteeism increases slightly among men. The same is true for women except that the increase begins earlier in the week. The causes of absenteeism are similar to those for tardiness with the addition of absence due to death in the employee's family, private business, occasional days off for fishing, hunting, football games, etc.

Policies toward absenteeism. The policies of various companies toward absenteeism vary widely. One survey[2] shows that the time before absentees are dropped from the payroll is as follows: immediately, 3 per cent; three days, 10.1 per cent; five days, 3.9 per cent; one week, 13.1 per cent; two weeks, 12.8 per cent; one month, 9.8 per cent; end of pay period, 1.2 per cent; after investigation, 20.8 per cent; no standard policy, 25.3 per cent. The same survey shows the penalties for absenteeism are: none except loss of pay, 47.1 per cent; subject to layoff, 10.9 per cent; subject to discharge, 28.3 per cent; first warning, second layoff, third discharge, 3.8 per cent; must report to supervisor, personnel office, or other official before returning to work, 1.6 per cent; loss of seniority after three days, 1.1 per cent; loss of vacation rights, 1.6 per cent; no standard policy, 5.4 per cent.

There are other methods of handling absenteeism: attendance reward bonuses may be used; penalties may be imposed or men may be docked in excess of the time lost, especially for bonus work. Absentees may be made conspicuous by posting departmental, or occasionally, individual records. Many companies find a method involving competition and publicity successful in controlling absenteeism. Supervisors may keep careful records and emphasize the importance of the records in determining wage increases, promotions, and layoffs. In the final analysis the same methods are used to control absenteeism and tardiness. Emphasis is usually concentrated on the personal contact of the supervisor with the offending employee. Only through an interview can the supervisor get at most of the facts to determine the cause of absence or tardiness. One method of measuring the degree of morale and the quality of leadership in a department is by analyz-

[2] National Industrial Conference Board, *Studies in Personnel Policy* 23, 1940, page 13.

ing the numbers of employee absences and tardiness. Every supervisor can measure the quality of his own leadership fairly well by periodically analyzing the absentee and tardiness record of his department. The supervisor who knows his men, recognizes their individual differences, handles their grievances promptly, and maintains their morale through soundly planned leadership will find that he is taking the necessary steps to hold absenteeism and tardiness to a minimum.

The table which follows lists some of the more common causes of absenteeism and tardiness together with suggested cures.

Causes	Cures
To be corrected by employee	
1. Habit	1. Personal talk, square deal, interest, pride, shame. penalty
2. Alarm clock	2. New clock
3. Carelessness	3. Personal talk, instruction, penalty
4. Lack of ambition or goal	4. Personal talk, see doctor, interest, investigate, refit, penalty
5. Late hours or dissipation	5. Personal talk, health, square deal to family and others
6. Laziness	6. Investigate, personal talk, see doctor, refit, interest, penalty, square deal to others
7. Domestic trouble	7. Investigate, personal talk, personal interest, good judgment, help, friendly
8. Lack of self-discipline	8. Habit, personal talk, self-respect
9. Personal business	9. Personal talk, importance of job, square deal, enlist his cooperation
10. Looking for other job	10. Personal talk, importance of job
11. Holding two jobs	11. Personal talk, duty to family and company and his health, penalty
12. Distance to travel	12. Personal talk, investigate, transfer to plant nearer home
To be corrected by employee with cooperation of company	
1. Lack of interest	1. Refit, importance of job, opportunities, transfer, penalty
2. Dissatisfaction with job	2. Personal talk, investigate, remove cause, refit, create interest
3. Poor example	3. Personal talk—reverse example
4. Dissatisfaction with working conditions	4. Investigate, remove cause if possible, transfer, discharge
5. Dissatisfaction with wages	5. Investigate, square deal, personal talk, proper instruction, refit, penalty
6. Dissatisfaction with fellow workers	6. Personal talk, instruction, transfer
7. Indifference	7. Personal talk, health, square deal to family and others
8. Not enough work	8. Square deal, personal talk, layoff, rotate men
Unavoidable	
1. Transportation	1. Allow time for emergencies, personal talk
2. Sickness	2. See doctor, sympathy, investigate
3. Accidents	3. Personal talk in safety first, sympathy, start on time, allow time for emergency
4. Weather conditions	4. Allow more time

Note: Some of these items above could appear under more than one heading.

CHAPTER XVI

PRODUCING AND MEASURING QUALITY

The demand for quality. The principle of specialization and the demands of mass production force the supervisor to be quality-conscious. Every supervisor is faced with constant pressure from the consumer, his superiors, and the engineering department to meet specifications requiring high standards and close tolerances. One factor in the success of American industry, which has been built on the foundation of mass production, is found in the ability of supervisors to meet the quality standards set for them. Mass production using interchangeable parts is dependent upon quality control maintained by men, management, and machines. Much has been said and written about mass-production methods' killing the pride of craftsmanship in workmen, yet the craftsmen of the past never made two articles that were the same when viewed from modern standards. Today men with the aid of standardized materials, machines, tools, and precision gages turn out parts that are identical to the thousandth of an inch or less. The pride that develops from men and their machines' meeting quality standards in terms of thousandths of an inch and holding these standards in producing large quantities can be as intense and as great a factor in building morale as any pride growing out of individual craftsmanship. The ability of men to control machines through the use of precision tools and measuring devices deserves the same praise as the ability of men to construct by hand an entire product. The supervisor can develop pride in this type of craftsmanship among his men if he handles them properly and he can turn this sort of pride into a morale-building tool.

Today the production supervisor is *quality-conscious.* He must be able to produce and measure quality in his department. This means he must make his men quality-conscious by instilling in them a pride to produce and to maintain quality. To do this the supervisor must possess knowledge and leadership, a knowledge of what quality is, how it can be measured, controlled and produced, and leadership to develop in his men the skills to meet the standards set for the department and its product.

The meaning of quality.[1] Quality is the term used to describe the characteristics of a substance or thing, such as size, use, or serviceability as well as the degree with which it meets the predetermined standards in terms of strength, resiliency, and elasticity. In manufacturing we are particularly interested in how closely a product meets established standards. From this standpoint *quality is the sum of a number of desired related characteristics such as shape, dimensions, composition, strength, workmanship, adjustment, finish, and color. The essential element in quality is not cost but conformity to established standards.* The measure of quality is the standard set for the product. Any deviation from this standard is a variation in quality. One product may cost more than the other but in relation to manufacturing quality, the lower-cost item may be the better. Most people think of quality as absolute and think of price as a measure of quality. Price in some instances may be a measure of actual quality but is not a true gage from the manufacturing standpoint. *Standards of quality are norms to be achieved and absolute quality as a standard is attainable only at great expense. Relative standards or standards with acceptable deviations are the measures of commercial quality.* The aim of production is to attain the "bull's-eye" of the standard not the outer ring of tolerance. The supervisor who is only interested in keeping within the tolerances will have far more complaints in his department than the supervisor whose men strive to meet the specified standard.

Who sets the standards of quality? In the long run the consuming public by its approval in buying or by its refusal to buy sets the standards for commercial quality. The sales department, the part of the organization closest to the consumer, recognizes and interprets the consumers' desires and passes them on to the engineering department. The engineering department in the main establishes standards of production supported by the advice and recommendations of the purchasing and manufacturing departments. The purchasing department advises the engineering department regarding the practicability of a given standard for materials or purchased parts. The manufacturing department assists the engineering department with data on the possibility of producing the desired quality at a given cost. Although the engineering department establishes the quality standards it must rely on the facts it develops in the laboratory plus the information avail-

[1] See Richard H. Lansburgh and William R. Spriegel, *Industrial Management*, John Wiley & Sons, New York, 1940, Chapter IX, which has been quoted freely in this chapter.

able to it on materials, production methods, production costs, and available equipment to reach its conclusions.

Whose responsibility is it to produce quality? The engineering department is responsible for establishing the standards of quality but it is the manufacturing department, for which the supervisor is directly responsible, that produces the article in accordance with the established standards. *Therefore, within his department the supervisor is responsible for producing and measuring quality.* In a line-and-staff organization the supervisor is aided by his assistants, his set-up men, his machine operators, and others, each responsible in his respective sphere, but all answerable to the supervisor. In many organizations staff departments such as engineering and inspection also assist the supervisor and may even exercise functional control over the quality of the work of his department. This staff supervision and assistance do not relieve the supervisor of his responsibility, however, but merely serve to assist him in meeting his responsibility for quality. The supervisor alone cannot control or produce the quality desired from a department; only through the cooperation of his men can quality be met and standards maintained. It is much better to have everybody in the department working for quality rather than just one supervisor. The supervisor is responsible for cooperation, instruction, planning, leadership, and safety, which all play an integral part in producing, measuring, and maintaining quality standards.

Into the responsibility for measuring quality is woven the responsibilities for machines, materials, and men. If equipment is defective it is the supervisor's responsibility to shut down and ask to have the machinery repaired, or failing in this, to take the matter up with his superior for further instructions. This last step is important since the superior, in turn, is held responsible for the standards of quality by the persons above him. When equipment in the supervisor's department is inactive very long he is holding up a sequence of operations which precede and follow the work of his department. Today in mass-production industries machine troubles and delays in a single department can quickly cause production delays throughout the entire manufacturing process in the plant. If the material the supervisor receives is defective it is again the supervisor's duty to report the facts immediately to his superior as well as to the inspection department. More labor or time may be required when such materials must be utilized to achieve the quality standards but this does not excuse the supervisor from meeting and maintaining the established standards. He should report to his superior at once for instructions when labor costs are excessive. Such facts should also be reported to other de-

partments concerned including the department immediately preceding the supervisor's department, the inspection department, purchasing department, and other departments according to his company's procedure. Too many supervisors proceed to work the material as best they can without getting the information about the trouble out in the open where someone in authority can do something about it.

Whose responsibility is it to measure quality? The supervisor or his representatives measure quality in most operations as part of their production responsibilities. The operator can be helpful in measuring the quality of work he does but in the final analysis it is the supervisor who is held responsible for the production's meeting the standards set up for his department. When the supervisor delegates his responsibility for measuring quality he must be certain his representatives as well as the machine operators are trained to measure quality and his follow-up of their work should be made at regular and frequent intervals. The organizational structure will determine whether or not the special function of quality measuring—inspection—is set up in a separate unit. Where quality standards are relatively easy to meet and of minor importance the inspection group may report to the supervisor. Where quality standards are relatively difficult to attain a separate inspection department should measure quality. It is illogical to expect the same man to be responsible for producing quality under mass-production operating conditions and to be his own measurer of the attainment of that quality. The need increases for a separate inspection department, responsible to someone at a higher level of authority than the supervisor, in proportion as the difficulty of producing and measuring quality increases. In an organization where quality is vital, and this includes nearly all mass-production industries following the principles of specialization and interchangeable parts, the inspection department should report to the general superintendent or general manager.

Function of the inspection department. Almost every supervisor today works under the functional control of an inspection department. The point at which the inspection department and the supervisor's department meet demands the highest degree of cooperation. We have seen that cooperation grows out of knowledge and mutual respect. The better the supervisor understands inspection as a process the greater success he and his department will achieve. In general there are four major objectives behind the activities of the inspection department: (1) to control the quality standards of the manufacturing processes, *operative inspection;* (2) to aid in the location of the causes of defective work and cooperatively to assist in removing the

causes, *preventive inspection;* (3) to sort acceptable from defective raw materials or work in process, *remedial inspection;* and (4) *to provide management,* through properly designed reports, *with a picture of the quality of the product produced, a statement of the quality of the raw materials received, and a measure of the efficiency of plant operations,* which is often used as a basis of payment to the employees. The control of quality standards in manufacturing checks the workmanship of all operations in the plant. This is particularly effective when carried on with a view to preventing difficulties later. To cooperate with the manufacturing group in the location of the causes of defects and to aid in their removal is the highest type of preventive inspection, the one that pays the largest returns on effort expended, and the type that is becoming increasingly important in modern industry. The sorting of defective work in process or in the finished product *protects the good name of the concern, prevents further expenditure on defective parts* that must be rejected later, and *protects the customer in his purchase.* It is a necessity in plant operations but the amount of this type of inspection decreases in proportion to the effectiveness of preventive inspection. To reject raw materials before they are started in production is in reality a form of preventive inspection. The providing of accurate records of the quality of raw materials, work-in-process, and the finished product gives management statistical data for guidance in operating controls and policies.

Types of inspection. Inspection may be classified under at least four different headings, depending largely upon the point of view or emphasis at the time of classifying, namely,

(1) Remedial and preventive inspection.
(2) Centralized, floor, or a combination of centralized and floor inspection.
(3) Materials, work-in-process, finished product, or final inspection, and functional inspection.
(4) Visual, and nonvisual inspection, such as chemical composition, tensile strength, ductility.

1. *Remedial inspection,* as previously described, lays its major emphasis upon catching defects that have already occurred, thus protecting the good name of the manufacturer as well as the consumer and eliminating further waste by adding more work to a defective part or product. Remedial inspection or corrective inspection strives to filter the good from the bad. Preventive or constructive inspection emphasizes the positive attitude rather than the negative. Corrective inspection catches parts that are defective, and the employee is usually

required to repair them on his own time, or he is not paid for them if they must be scrapped, whereas preventive inspection often is used in connection with a special incentive for quality achievement. Neither preventive inspection nor remedial inspection has to be tied into any special wage scheme. The major difference between the two types of inspection is the emphasis of the one upon catching defects that have been produced and the other upon preventing their occurrence.

2. *Centralized inspection* refers to that method of inspection in which the product inspected is brought to a central location for inspection. It does not necessarily follow that there will be only one place in a plant where inspection of this type is carried on. As a matter of fact, there might even be two or more places in one large department where parts are taken for inspection. The major distinction is that the product is not inspected on the floor at or adjacent to the place of production. Centralized inspection usually is performed in a place specially set aside for the purpose, often within an enclosure, and specially adapted or equipped for the purpose. Centralized inspection carries the principle of specialization somewhat further than floor inspection. Under certain operating conditions and for certain products centralized inspection has some outstanding advantages as follows:

(*a*) It is easier to supervise the inspectors; their tasks may be subdivided, and a less skilled type of employee may be used. (Girls are often used to inspect machined parts or assemblies.)

(*b*) The inspector's output should be greater because of better working environment, less interference, and increased speed arising from specialization.

(*c*) There should be less interference with men in production and better shop housekeeping when the products are not held at the workplace for inspection.

(*d*) Centralized inspection produces more impartial inspection; at least the inspector is not under the direct strain of rejecting the work of a man with whom he is in personal contact.

(*e*) Centralized inspection facilitates the use of specialized equipment such as the x ray, radio amplification, special lights, and other delicate mechanisms.

(*f*) Records of approved and rejected parts together with the source of each are more readily kept under centralized inspection.

(*g*) Production control is facilitated when parts pass through a central location where a total count of approvals and rejections is made.

Although centralized inspection has its advantages for certain situations, there are also some inherent disadvantages and, in some situations such as the manufacture of heavy parts or products, it may be highly impractical. Centralized inspection tends to increase the amount of transporting material except where the inspection is performed in the stores department or stockroom. It is also apparent that centralized inspection is not feasible in progressive manufacturing at least for the parts, although the final product may be centrally inspected.

3. *Floor inspection* consists of inspecting the part or product at or adjacent to its place of production. If the volume of production justifies an inspector's remaining in one place such as on an assembly line or in a given work center, the inspection is relatively stationary as far as location is concerned. Not infrequently, however, an inspector may be what is known as a "roving inspector" and cover a large area. The character of the product, the type of processing, and the inspection itself control the movements of the inspector when inspection is performed on the production floor.

4. *Materials, work-in-process, finished product, and functional inspection* form a classification of inspection when considered from the point of view of the items inspected. This group is often subdivided into inspection of purchased or raw materials and manufacturing inspection. The essential characteristics of inspecting work in process have been covered above under the discussion of centralized and floor inspection. There are a few other observations, however, in connection with manufacturing inspection that may be in order.

Inspection problems in assembly industries are somewhat different in character from inspection problems in continuous industries. In the latter, the general problem of manufacturing inspection is to develop good quality in the final product. Frequently the purpose of the inspection work is to rate the product as to quality after it is produced. In continuous industries, such as the manufacture of paper, textiles, or chemicals, a defect in manufacture is likely to make the material a "second," and there is frequently no possibility of correcting the defect. Thus the operation of an inspection department in such industries includes prevention of defects wherever possible, noting defects after they have occurred, and deciding whether such defects may be remedied, whether the goods must be placed in the lower classification of product, or whether they must be scrapped.

In assembly industries inspection includes attention to accuracy of manufacture and to interchangeability. The American system of manufacture has been erected on the basis of interchangeable parts.

Although the consumer is likely to look upon interchangeable parts from the standpoint of possible availability for repair purposes, this is a very minor consideration. From a production control standpoint, as well as from the standpoint of the assembly operations, this interchangeability of parts in assembled products is essential in order that specific parts, when started in manufacture, need not be designated as being for specific pieces of final product. Inspection of components during process affords the inspection department an especially good opportunity to practice preventive medicine in assembly industries.

There is another phase of inspection of the finished product that remains to be examined, namely, *engineering inspection.* Certain types of products such as large machinery units are completely fabricated on the assembly or erection floor and accurately tested by technical experts to determine their operating characteristics. Large motors, turbines, generators, etc., are tested in this manner by the Allis-Chalmers Corporation. In some instances representatives of the purchaser, particularly in governmental purchases, are present at these inspections. Airplanes and steamships are usually either flight-tested or given trial runs.

Functional inspection. For parts functional inspection usually consists of placing the part in a skeletonized assembly and operating it to see if it performs the desired function.

The fourth type of inspection, visual, merely refers to the method of inspecting. The title is self-explanatory. This type of inspection has been sufficiently covered in discussing the other three classifications.

Location of the inspection department in the organization. As has been previously pointed out an inspection department must never be made directly subservient to the will of those who are engaged in increasing the quantity of production, unless quality of work is but a very small factor in the successful operation of the plant.

If the supervisor has charge of inspection work, manifestly he cannot be expected to be rigorous in his application of manufacturing standards and, at the same time, be forcing quantity production through his department. This does not imply that the supervisor should not be interested in quality; quite the contrary, *the supervisor has as one of his major responsibilities the creation of a quality product.* Means should be provided to see that quantity production should not be credited to a supervisor unless quality is good. On the other hand, decision as to quality must be taken out of his hands.

If quality is not of excessive importance in an industry, inspection

forces may be maintained as a staff department under the superintendent. This places the supervisor in a position of receiving instructions from two sources regarding amount of product to be produced and the quality of that product. He must endeavor to correlate his instructions and if there is a conflict in instructions, the matter will naturally be referred to the superintendent for a decision.

If quality is of maximum importance, as in the production of scientific instruments or in goods which are sold mainly on the basis of quality rather than on the basis of price, the inspection should probably become a major manufacturing function directly under the control of the works manager. The inspection function would thus hold a position analogous to that of the purchasing department or the engineering department. The inspection department can be most helpful when it endeavors to prevent errors in manufacture rather than to criticize results and turn back defective material for reworking or scrap. Though all errors cannot be corrected prior to their occurrence, if the inspection department will practice preventive medicine on the product, not only will it become a dividend-paying department of the organization, but it can more readily cooperate with the supervisors responsible for quantity. The inspection department is an effective aid to the supervisor, the planning department, the training department, or the methods department, whichever of these may direct the methods of operation and instruction of the employee. If instruction as to causes of defects is made a major function of the inspection department, the idea of carrying on the preventive medicine campaign will have been greatly furthered.

The inspection department should have full control both over inspection of purchased materials and parts and over inspection during production. The first enables it to maintain the material standards which have been set and the second makes possible the maintenance of product standards. Frequently the work of inspection incident to production will closely approximate the type of inspection on purchased materials.

Factors to be considered in inspection. The more automatic the machine, the less attention need be given to inspecting the product after the initial setup inspection. In high-quality products, or products which are manufactured largely through the skill of the employee rather than the skill of the machine, much more of the product must be inspected than where the machine, once set up, is likely to turn out standard quality products without adjustment for a considerable time. Where quality depends on the machine, inspection must be made frequently enough to ascertain that the equipment is operating satis-

factorily and does not need adjustment other than the usual adjustment made by the men on the job. Where quality depends on human skill, frequently 100 per cent inspection will be necessary, that is, every unit of product must be inspected after every operation.

The ratio of inspectors to production employees depends upon several factors, namely, the nature of the production process, the relative quality group of the product, the type of equipment used, the organizational setup, etc. It is obvious that a continuous-process industry producing a single product would require less inspection than a jobbing type of industry producing many types of quality products. Institutions producing a high-quality precision type of product also require more inspectors than the same general type of industry producing a lower-quality product. Again the special-purpose machine used where volume justifies it requires less inspection of its product than where the same item is manufactured by general-purpose machines. It is true that the special-purpose machine itself may require more checking and maintenance than the general machine but the maintenance group is not usually classified with the inspectors. The organizational setup may also influence the number of inspectors required. Where the number of supervisors is adequate to keep a close check on the quality of production, the amount of inspection necessary to measure quality is reduced. Modern precision equipment and techniques have greatly reduced the number of inspectors required to maintain that desired quality.

Causes for low quality. Supervisors find their men fail to meet the quality standards because of: (1) lack of knowledge either of the standards or of methods of performing their work; (2) lack of ability (when the man lacks capacity for the work he should be transferred to work for which he is better suited); (3) not exercising proper care (every supervisor has met the careless employee who must either be cured, transferred, or discharged); (4) defective equipment or materials (which are the supervisor's responsibilities once the man has informed the supervisor concerning them). All these can be corrected only when the cause has been determined and the proper remedy applied.

Ways and means of creating and maintaining quality. The supervisor's control over his department will influence the need for and amount of inspection. His attitude toward quality is important for if the supervisor is quality-conscious the men likewise will be quality-conscious. Disciplining and reprimanding the men will not alone get quality. The supervisor must know the best manner in which to approach his men and help them to attain the quality standards of the department. Just telling them they are poor quality producers and

not telling them how to remedy the situation will not bring quality. Instruction and training in their work are important. Men may make a mistake because they don't know what to do. To get quality the supervisor must find out what is causing the defects and teach the men how to avoid them. The right man on the job is also important and the supervisor must carry out his responsibilities for properly inducting, instructing, and, when necessary, transferring men to maintain quality in his department. Proper specifications as to the desired quality are necessary since no employee can be expected to work to tolerances unless he knows what they are. It is helpful when men know and understand the reasons for close tolerances. Showing them how their work ties into that of other departments and other men assists them in producing and measuring quality. Persistent follow-up by the supervisor is required and supervision must be especially close where high-quality tolerances are required.

The supervisor should use his assistants, his group leaders, his set-up men, and adjusters to attain quality. It is particularly important that these men be kept informed of quality requirements and standards. Successful supervisors develop their men's pride in quality achievement. Today, in an age of specialization when a man frequently performs only a single operation on a product, developing pride in craftsmanship is difficult, but showing him where his part goes in the finished product will create interest on his part and assist in attaining quality production. The supervisor can use inspection, scrap, and rejection reports effectively in making his men quality-conscious. He can develop competition between men and sections of his department as an aid in producing quality. The supervisor must create the conditions conducive to quality maintenance by paying especial attention to materials, machines, and working conditions. Finally the supervisor must take immediate action when standards are not met, action to inform the men, to instruct the men, to repair machines, to provide satisfactory materials and tools, and to eliminate men who through carelessness or lack of ability lower his department's capacity to produce and measure quality.

The supervisor can promote quality control through the men themselves. He can let them know the standards and why these standards are necessary. He should provide instruction for both new and old men. He should use praise wherever possible since praise for good work is far more effective than censure for poor work. He should provide adequate supervision for the men through delegation of responsibilities to well-trained assistants. It is poor policy to pass work below standard one day and reject it the following day. The super-

visor should see that his men have proper equipment, correct tools, satisfactory materials, and an even flow of work with as few changes as possible. Finally every supervisor through his actions and his talk must strive to develop a quality attitude in his men. The table below illustrates some of the causes of and remedies for poor-quality production.

Causes	Remedy
1. Unskilled workmen	Instruct
2. Poor equipment	Proper supervision and maintenance
3. Carelessness of worker	Proper training and supervision
4. Lack of knowledge on the part of the worker	Teach quality requirements and reasons for same
5. Defective materials	Reject materials, report to proper authorities, and add extra work
6. Speed of production in	
a. Relation to machine capacity	Adjust or get new machines
b. Relation to worker capacity	Adjust, slow down or teach new speed
7. Design of machine	Correct
8. Design of tool	Correct
9. Quality ideals of supervisors low	Instruct

Cooperation with the inspection department. The successful supervisor regards the inspection department as an important aid to him in his work. He uses the inspection department to assist him in maintaining quality. The supervisor should recognize that the function of inspection is to measure quality and should not feel that there is something personal in actions taken by inspectors. He should encourage and cooperate in preventive inspection and not merely acquiesce in remedial inspection. He should develop respect for the inspection department among his men and see that they cooperate with the inspectors. The supervisor may not always agree with the inspection department but he should never show this attitude before his men. The supervisor should never attempt to "pass the buck" to inspection nor attempt to unload his responsibility on their shoulders.

Summary. Every supervisor must recognize that he is responsible for the quality production although the inspection department assists him and exercises functional control over measuring quality. He must realize that quality maintenance is a cooperative program challenging the best efforts of the supervisor as an executive. Success in producing and measuring quality comes only to the supervisor who recognizes and applies the doctrine of individual differences in handling his men. To achieve quality maintenance requires careful organizing, deputizing responsibilities and authority to others since no supervisor can do it alone, and supervision that is inherent in leadership of the highest quality.

CHAPTER XVII

WASTE CONTROL

The supervisor and waste. One of the supervisor's surest ways to success is through his ability to eliminate or at least to control within established standards the many sources of waste that develop in his department. Many a supervisor has reached a top executive position as the result of disposing of the wastes that existed in his department and in his plant. There are hidden wastes that creep into every department and every plant, and unfortunately too few supervisors recognize the profit possibilities in waste elimination. The fact that supervisors are not "waste-conscious" is not entirely their fault since management does not always recognize its responsibility to control waste through promoting waste elimination. When supervisors see management spend money thoughtlessly or disregard leaks that could be prevented they are not likely to make any great effort to control individual wastes in their departments. In plants that have become waste-conscious losses have been turned into profits. Supervisors have turned red figures into black ones through watching for and eliminating the wastes that creep in and develop in the work of their department. Results show in the reduced costs for the department, and every management is on the lookout for supervisors with records of low departmental costs. This does not mean saving money at the expense of the men or reducing the quality of the product. On the contrary, true waste control by the supervisor assists him in building morale among his men and in maintaining ever rising quality standards. The supervisor should be able to recognize the sources and types of waste in an industrial enterprise and should be able to determine the causes of the varied types of waste. The successful supervisor develops a waste consciousness and translates this consciousness into action directed toward waste elimination. The object of the following discussion is to point out the nature of waste, its causes, and some methods of eliminating it.

The nature of waste. The meaning of waste should not be limited to scrap material, broken tools, or machines that are down waiting to be repaired. *Waste arises from the improper use or failure to use materials, manpower, equipment, or any measurable factor in pro-*

duction. Waste exists when either too much light or too little light is used. Waste develops when the wrong tool or a poorly designed machine is selected to do work that could be done more efficiently with other tools or better-designed equipment. Manpower is wasted any time a skilled man receiving a high wage rate is used on work which could be done equally well by an unskilled employee receiving a lower wage. Waste occurs if one department processes materials which could be handled more efficiently in another department. Any time work is done in any manner other than the one best known way, waste occurs. Using material other than the material best suited for the particular job involved or employing men who are not the best qualified to do the work produces waste. Waste occurs just as easily in the engineering, purchasing, or personnel departments as in the production departments. At times waste is present in shipping or receiving departments that more than offsets economies instituted in production departments. Every supervisor can find wastes in his department and many of them are of a kind that he can take immediate steps to eliminate or control. Other wastes may have to be referred to other departments such as personnel, engineering, or purchasing, but at least he has recognized and raised the problem and wherever possible recommended action.

Waste in the broad sense. Waste is found not only in the supervisor's department or in individual plants but it is also nationwide. Industrial waste in the broadest social and economic sense includes: (1) unemployment during depressions, (2) speculation and overproduction during boom times, (3) excessive labor turnover, (4) labor conflicts, (5) failure in transportation of supplies, fuel, or power, (6) unbalanced seasonal production, (7) lack of standardization, (8) inefficient processing of materials, (9) uneconomic use of equipment, (10) inefficient use of manpower, (11) uneconomic use of supplies, (12) misuse of power, (13) deliberate restriction of production either by management or men, and (14) ill health and accidents. Many of these do not come within the control of the supervisor yet as an intelligent member of our industrial society he should recognize them. Others are within his province and he can either take action himself to eliminate or control them or start action higher up by his suggestions and recommendations. The supervisor can control the use of power within his department avoiding waste of it whenever possible. Recognizing the possibilities of restriction of output by his men he can see that the conditions leading to such action are not present in his department. Every supervisor through safety instruction and supervision can take steps to reduce accidents. The supervisor may

even recommend steps toward standardization within his own department and within the plant, as well as methods to eliminate unbalanced seasonal production.

Classifications of waste. There are several ways of classifying waste. One is when it occurs, another is by types, a third is by what can be done about it. Waste classified according to time of occurrence falls into (1) frequently recurring, (2) miscellaneous, (3) epidemic. Waste classified as to types includes (1) manpower, (2) equipment, (3) tools, (4) supplies, (5) materials, (6) heat, light, and power. Waste classified as to what can be done about it includes (1) avoidable, (2) semi-avoidable, (3) unavoidable. From the standpoint of the supervisor each of the above classifications has merit and for certain purposes these classifications may be combined. Under avoidable wastes may be found those which are frequently recurring—manpower, equipment, etc. Under epidemic may be included manpower, equipment, etc. The Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Company, East Springfield Works, found that, in general, their waste was distributed as follows: recurrent, 25 per cent; epidemic, 25 per cent; and miscellaneous, 50 per cent.[1] Through winning employee cooperation this company was able to reduce waste in 1939 31 per cent under 1938 and 47 per cent under 1937.

Responsibility for waste. The responsibility for waste falls on the shoulders of three groups, the public, management including supervisors, and the men. The public is both directly and indirectly responsible for many wastes that are very nearly unavoidable. Buying habits, especially seasonal demands, are causes of waste that no management can cure. Pressing into four weeks the buying for Christmas is an outstanding example which causes many manufacturers to compress their production into the few months just preceding this buying season. The demand for excessive variety in sizes, colors, and styles is a cause of untold waste. The demand for fashion changes is another way in which the public promotes waste. Among the many examples that can be cited are women's clothing, radios, and refrigerators. In many cases in addition to the demand of the consuming public for change must be added that of the engineering departments and purchasing agents whose demands for something different and for variations in dimensions or specifications are often amazing. It took the First World War to start a movement toward simplification and standardization which is yet a long way from completion. The responsibility of waste may be traced to management and very often to

[1] See T. O. Armstrong, *Employee Cooperation in Quality Control*, Bureau of Industrial Relations, University of Michigan, 1941.

the supervisors. It includes those wastes due to poor planning or complete lack of planning, faulty organization, inadequate buildings or space, poor plant layout, expensive processes, inefficient methods, lack of controls, inadequate instruction and improper placement of employees, failure to give the men information that would make them waste- and standards-conscious, and the lack of standards or designs. The responsibility for waste can be charged against the men when they fail to acquire the necessary skill to perform their work, lack the willingness to cooperate, have the wrong attitude toward their work, their supervisor and the company, when they deliberately restrict output, fail to learn and to follow the standards set for them, meet with accidents they could have avoided by taking proper precautions, and fail to pay the necessary attention to details.

Waste is one of the many problems faced by management and supervisors. Like any problem there is one best way to attack it. The first step is to get all the facts, then determine the causes and fix the responsibility, and finally to take the necessary action to control or eliminate the waste. As part of getting the facts, records are essential.

Records of waste. Records in and of themselves are valueless. They have value only when used effectively. To be useful, records must be specific and describe in workable detail the exact nature of the waste and to a considerable extent its cause. Records on waste should be compiled so that the waste can be allocated to a particular product, a specific item in that product, and as far as is practicable to a particular operation and machine. Wherever possible they should fix responsibility on a shift and even on an operator. Waste records should be sufficiently comprehensive so that they can point to the cause, whether it be unsatisfactory raw materials, defective tools or equipment, poor workmanship, defective supplies, or auxiliary materials such as lubricants, improper design, or routing, or inadequate handling or storing. Such records can be compiled only when specialized departments such as production control, cost, or inspection specifically collect them for preventive purposes and not merely as historical data. Records which assist in waste control can be kept only when functions and responsibilities are clearly defined and allocated from an organization standpoint, thus indicating defects for which the men are responsible or which are due to management inadequacies. Since a sizeable proportion of waste may be traceable to the failure of the men to meet standards of quality and performance, waste records must be in a form capable of being understood and used by the supervisor and his assistants. These records, especially when assembled by other departments, must be made available to the supervisor. Many

times it is advisable to give such records to the operator involved but he must also be given an interpretation of causal relationships and have the standards reexplained to him.

The Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Company screw machine department had a running feud with the fan department over the tolerances specified on a worm gear. When a committee of employees from the two departments came together to discuss the scrap situation it was discovered that the screw machine operators had never seen the inside of a fan before. When they had the opportunity to examine the parts of a fan and see for themselves the reasons for the close tolerances the trouble was ended.[2] Whenever men have the opportunity to see the reasons for the standards set for them, when they know the why of the job, the supervisor has taken a long step toward waste control.

The supervisor's responsibility for waste within his department. Although there are many wastes nation- and industry-wide which the supervisor sees and can do nothing about, he can find waste conditions in his own department which are within his province and on which he has power to act to eliminate or at least control them. A study of his department will reveal to the supervisor wastes in manpower, in materials, in tools and equipment, and in space, heat, power, and light. Here is waste he can take action on and the results will stand out in the cost records of his department. This is the opportunity every supervisor seeks, to make a name for himself and to bring his record to the attention of management.

Waste of manpower. When the supervisor studies his men in his department he will find five broad fields where manpower is or can be wasted easily: (1) ineffective use of manpower, (2) inefficiency in the maintenance of manpower, (3) accidents and health, (4) unnecessary overtime, and (5) excessive nonproductive labor. Every supervisor who analyzes his department will usually find places where he is not utilizing his manpower to its maximum effectiveness. This may be due to wasted motions or to his men's not using the best possible method of performing the work. Usually this will be found true in departments where the jobs have not been motion-studied and the best possible procedure established. In other instances, supervisors will find that an employee is not on the job for which he is best fitted. Such waste is evident when a skilled man is being used on semiskilled or unskilled operations. When the supervisor knows his men, their interests, capacities, and opportunities, he will find that

[2] T. O. Armstrong, *op. cit.*

men are often on jobs that do not take full advantage of the individual interests and capacities. Frequently the supervisor will find men in his department who are poorly placed instead of being assigned to work for which they are best fitted.

Poor departmental layout will result in ineffective use of manpower. When men have to walk an excessive distance to get materials or tools, when their machines are not arranged in such fashion as to conserve both space and worker energy, and when the flow of materials from machine to machine is not properly laid out, manpower is being wasted. To have men waiting for materials is an ineffective use of manpower. A similar situation arises when men wait for job assignments or to punch time cards for new jobs. The supervisor may find that men walk long distances in order to get materials or work orders when orders and work should be brought to them. One of the major ways in which manpower is not used to its maximum effectiveness is in the failure to take advantage of the principles of specialization. Nearly every supervisor will find in his department skilled men who spend part of their time on operations which could be performed by a helper or learner, freeing the experienced man for concentration on operations requiring his special skills and experience. Many supervisors will find men in their departments who wash up prior to quitting time or who are not at their workplaces at starting time. When this is a frequent occurrence, manpower losses are considerable. Ineffective use of manpower results when men deliberately restrict output or work rapidly until the standard is in sight and then loaf on the job. Some supervisors have found instances where one man operates a single machine when he could readily, with slight readjustments of equipment, operate two or more machines.

Ineffective use of manpower occurs when improper selection and placement of men is present. Poorly selected men result in high turnover, increased costs, and lowered morale in the department. Poorly placed men likewise communicate their discontent to other men in the department and lower departmental efficiency. The supervisor must constantly watch and control the selection and placement of the men assigned to his department and train or transfer men when the selections or placements are not satisfactory. Wastes of manpower are indicated when labor turnover increases. No department will utilize to its fullest extent the capacities of its men when there is a constant parade of men into and out of the department. Each employee will himself be wondering whether or not he will be the next one to go or if the turnover is due to men leaving for better jobs. The men who remain are also likely to be looking for other jobs and only staying on

the job until a better opening appears. Excessive accidents, absences, and tardinesses prevent the maintenance of manpower at the maximum point of efficiency. Poor discipline and low morale, which go hand in hand, increase the problems of the supervisor in effectively maintaining manpower.

Accidents contribute to wasted manpower. When men are off owing to accidents, the production of the entire department is reduced. The man must be replaced which results in delays and loss of time while the new man learns the work. There are the resultant losses to the company in compensation costs and decreased production. Unsatisfactory health conditions contribute to wastes in manpower. When bad lighting, ventilation, heating, or other unsatisfactory working conditions result in poor health, wastes develop. The money saved by decreasing light bills, reducing heat, lack of guards, or the reduced medical costs when periodical medical examinations are not used may readily be lost many times over in the resultant wastes of manpower. Lack of heat may cause an epidemic of colds that will cost much more in absenteeism and lowered production and morale than the money saved. It costs money to surround hazardous occupations with the necessary safeguards and to provide regular medical checkups, but the savings more than offset the cost. Safety programs pay their way many times over and the supervisor who takes the necessary steps to eliminate causes for accidents and illness will not only win the confidence of his men and build morale but will also increase his production and lower his departmental costs.

Unnecessary overtime contributes to the waste of manpower. When poor planning results in the need of overtime, costs rise since the work will carry overtime rates and the production of men on overtime is lower than during their regular working hours. Overtime due to insufficient manpower leads to discontent and lowered morale. Desired production cannot be maintained long by men in an understaffed department, and the supervisor will do well to see that his department is not short on manpower. Frequently he will think when he loses a man by transfer or discharge that he can get along without a replacement by letting the rest of the men share the work. At times this may be desirable if the department is overstaffed. At other times the practice is fatal. The men easily see through such an action on the part of the supervisor and frequently this leads to the beginning of the restriction of output. If, however, the supervisor reorganizes the work of his department, finding more efficient methods of performing the work, and the men see that they are helped to do a better job, then the supervisor may not need the replacement.

Excessive nonproductive labor is often a cause of wasted manpower. When the supervisor has the majority of his men on piecework and begins to find too many men carrying day rates in his department, he should recognize it as a sign of waste developing. If he continues learners on day rate after they should go on incentive rates, waste is present. Excessive day work allowances in departments on piecework or incentive plans indicate waste due to poor planning or lax supervision. When certain operations continue on day rate when they can be put on piecework or incentive, waste is occurring. Use of excessive nonproductive labor such as clerks or inspectors, even though day rate may be the established method of wage payment, results in waste. The supervisor must be on the lookout constantly for unnecessary personnel in his department. It is easy to add men to a department when it is busy and production is rising but the successful supervisor is the one who can control his labor costs in terms of his production within the possible limits imposed on him.

Wastes of material. After the supervisor has checked his department for wastes resulting from ineffective use of manpower he will find the next large area where waste develops is in the use of materials in his department. Waste in materials may be of two sorts, direct and indirect. Direct wastes of materials include: (1) using materials of improper specifications resulting in higher quality than needed; (2) using materials of lower quality than specified, making further processing difficult or impossible; (3) using materials not according to commercial usage, making the materials more expensive to secure; (4) errors in material specifications; and (5) closer tolerances than are necessary for the specific operation to be performed. Lower-quality materials than specified will cause excessive scrap or excessive labor to secure the desired quality with the ever present possibility that even with higher labor costs the product may still have to be scrapped later. When materials are of higher quality than specified, waste results owing to increased material costs even though there may be a slight reduction in labor costs. Improper storage of materials brings waste since there will be breakage, rust, or decay, depending on the material; additional costs for finishing or refinishing will be incurred; hauling and storage charges may mount; and reinspection may be necessary when materials are taken out of storage. Very often storage of materials may result in fire or accident hazards. Misuse of materials is another direct waste that frequently occurs. Misuse of materials includes using a larger or stronger part when it is not required, materials stolen or damaged on the job, or more materials ordered than needed.

Indirect wastes of materials develop from specifications being incompletely checked. Too often the specifications are not drawn carefully enough to obtain the best possible finished product per unit of cost. Accessory materials such as sandpaper and files as well as many larger articles that are not supplies are in universal use. There is usually a best size and type for each particular task. Sometimes excessive variety is the result of improper standardization. Indirect wastes of materials are often found in the methods of disbursement used. Disbursements should be made only on order and should be checked against production requirements. Unless proper storage methods are used to give materials protection against deterioration and to avoid pilfering, indirect wastes develop.

Reclaiming materials is one way to control waste where such materials as oils, files, and tools are used. Many supervisors discard these materials when they could be salvaged at a lower cost than the cost of replacement. Other material wastes that are indirect and go unnoticed until the supervisor studies his department include oils, both cutting and lubricating, waste rags, waste paper, scrap metals, partially worn-out or greasy belting, soap, and towels (where furnished), empty containers such as cartons, boxes, and barrels, broken castings, parts, and other materials. Many of these can be salvaged, reworked, or if properly handled sold to other companies instead of costing money to store or destroy. The supervisor should be on the alert to see that materials are not wasted: (1) because they are improperly machined and do not meet specifications; (2) because they become mixed, for example, nuts, bolts, and washers; (3) because regular processing leaves scrap such as that from stamping out parts, cutting out patterns, shavings, or defects arising from initial runs or setups. Frequently materials, otherwise of no use to the company, can be salvaged or sold to firms specializing in scrapped materials. In many instances the costs of separating or baling are more than offset by the higher prices paid for the materials when they are sold according to grade and ready for processing.

Waste in tools and equipment. The wastes that occur in tools and equipment offer a fertile field for every supervisor to investigate. Management today is conscious of the difficulties of obtaining new tools and machines or replacement parts, and attention devoted to eliminating these wastes will pay dividends in recognition from management as well as lower production costs. The supervisor may see that the wrong machines are being used, that heavy work is being done on light equipment, resulting in overloading and greater wear on machine parts, or that small operations are being performed on large and

expensive equipment involving higher setup costs and operating expense.

The alert supervisor will be on the lookout for wastes due to improper maintenance of machines and the lack of or improper repairing, oiling, or cleaning. Wastes in equipment occur through inefficient layout or arrangement of equipment. Long moves, due to machine locations which could be corrected by rearranging the machines, are a frequent source of waste in many plants. Excessive down time while loading or unloading machines frequently develops and is usually due to poor machine layout. The supervisor, as a result of a little study, can often develop jigs or fixtures so that one machine may be loaded while the other is unloaded. Frequently the excessive down time of machines while they are being loaded or unloaded is due to lack of instruction of the men performing the operations. In either case, eliminating the waste requires observation and analysis on the part of the supervisor.

The supervisor will uncover waste whenever his analysis of equipment discloses the fact that his machines are not producing up to capacity. He may find that too deep a cut is being taken or, conversely, the cut taken is not deep enough. The supervisor may find that special attachments which are available are not being used. Waste is present in every case where machines are not equipped with the best-designed cutting tools. The supervisor, as a result of studying his equipment and looking for waste, will frequently find that the operation sequence is improper and analysis of the operation will reveal a better procedure. When looking for waste, the supervisor will often uncover the use of dull tools, and frequently the causes of tool breakage will be discovered and reduced. Dull tools or tool breakage may result from improperly sharpened tools. Wastes occur in connection with equipment such as trays, racks, tote boxes, trucks, and containers which are used in machine operations. Contrary to popular opinion, great savings are often realized by motion-studying automatic or semi-automatic machinery. Not only hand operations should be motion-studied, but it is also equally essential to motion-study automatic equipment since it is possible to standardize the methods of setup and control of automatic equipment with consequent savings of machine time, material, operator time, and effort.

Waste in connection with buildings, heat, power, and light. The supervisor will find tremendous opportunities for controlling or eliminating wastes due to inefficient departmental layout; inefficient use, misuse, or nonuse of conveyors; improper or lack of building maintenance. Waste of heat results whenever overheating takes place, or

irregular control of heat is present, and whenever hot water is wasted by employees in the rest rooms or in the operation of equipment. The supervisor should seek to replace human controls with automatic controls of heat, power, and light whenever possible. Almost every supervisor will find power wastes in his department. Overloading of equipment in starting wastes power, as does starting all machines at once. Failure to take advantage of special rates on power constitutes a waste. Misuse of compressed air such as the men's using the air hose to blow the dirt off their clothing results in waste of power. Leaks in fittings and airlines waste power as does the use of compressed air for power when electricity is available. The use of excess horsepower in motors or constant overloading of motors is another waste that the supervisor will do well to seek out and remedy.

Misuse of light is a major waste in most departments and offers an excellent opportunity to the supervisor to show his ability to control or eliminate waste. Improper location of lighting fixtures and inadequate or excess lighting are frequently found in most departments. Lights that continue to burn when not needed constitute a common waste. Incorrect colors used in painting walls and ceilings result in increased light being required with resultant waste. Windows, bowls, and bulbs that need to be cleaned, or bulbs that are too large, all contribute to power wastes which the supervisor can control or eliminate. The use of general lighting when point of operation lighting should be used develops waste and at the same time is much less satisfactory to the operators.

Methods of eliminating waste. If the supervisor is to control waste in his department, if he wants to eliminate waste, he must attack it in the same manner as any other problem. First he must get the facts. This will require adequate records to determine the source of the waste, whether it is men, materials, machines, or another source. The supervisor who is successful in waste elimination is always found to be observant, he has his eyes open and is constantly looking for waste, for sources and methods to control or eliminate it. Proper organization is essential in waste elimination. Definite lines of authority must be established and maintained. Responsibility must be fixed—everybody's job is nobody's job. The supervisor must see that authority accompanies responsibility. Standards that are clear-cut and readily understood must be established and they must be commercially feasible and no higher than needed. This determination of proper standards may often require redesigning of parts and materials. One method of controlling waste the supervisor will find is the establishment of points of inspection to facilitate preventive inspection rather

than relying on remedial inspection. It is wise, where possible, to tie in remuneration with quality maintenance and scrap reduction or elimination. The supervisor must never become content with job performance up to established standards of scrap reduction but must re-evaluate the performance from time to time to see if newer or better methods may be devised. Research to develop better standards resulting in lowered waste is another step toward success in waste elimination.

Another method the supervisor should use in controlling waste is the setting up of the necessary controls to prevent waste; controls in planning, for inspection, for instruction, and of mechanical methods. The supervisor through planning can control many situations that would otherwise develop waste. He should avoid emergencies and rush orders and, in so far as possible, special orders. When emergencies arise, as they will, he should be prepared by having anticipated such conditions and be ready to meet them. Wherever possible he should try for runs of economical lot sizes. When the supervisor strives and succeeds in developing versatility among his men he is well prepared to meet successfully unexpected conditions and demands on his department without unnecessary waste taking place. He must plan for carefully scheduled repairs and maintenance of his machines and equipment and provide a steady flow of production to his men. These last two will contribute tremendously to any program of waste elimination and waste control the supervisor operates and they are basic elements in his planning for his department.

The supervisor must set up controls for inspection. This will sometimes be done for him by a separate inspection department but if not, he must do it himself as part of his program to control and eliminate waste. Such controls, irrespective of who sets them up must include such factors as when to inspect, at what point of manufacture or steps in the process; where to inspect, whether inspection is to be centralized or decentralized; how much to inspect, if 100 per cent inspection is necessary or if only sample inspection is required. The supervisor must determine the methods of inspection and, if it is to be done by his men, who shall do it.

Where a separate inspection department is part of the organization, the supervisor must promote and develop cooperation between himself, his men, and his department and the inspectors and their department and see that he and his men are constantly taking the steps of preventive inspection.

Instruction is a major control available to the supervisor and one he must constantly use in his program of waste control. He must see

that his new employees are properly introduced to the department. He must instruct his assistants, his setup men and specialists, his operators and other employees in all the methods, techniques, and procedures of their work. He must see that they understand what is expected of them, know why it is expected, and wherever possible show them where their work fits into the whole process and what the results are if their work is not up to standard. He should keep them informed on departmental costs, on the costs of scrap, and the savings in the department per man and per unit by scrap elimination or control. Publicity is a part of any instructional program and the supervisor should see that his men are informed constantly and regularly in an interesting fashion about the progress of waste elimination programs. He will use his bulletin boards, house organ, if the company has one, and special reports. He will make the facts on waste control interesting, to the point, and understandable by the men he wishes to reach. One of the most effective methods found thus far by companies who have conducted extensive scrap elimination programs or waste control campaigns is the use of committees. One of the most effective methods of developing the cooperation necessary to control and eliminate waste is through interesting a number of employees in the program by using the committee method.[3] Finally, instruction in safe methods and practices by employees will assist in waste control. It has been observed that accidents are a contributing factor to waste in industry. Safe practices reduce accidents and build morale and thus indirectly control waste.

The supervisor, in controlling waste, must set up adequate controls as part of his method. These will include planning for and developing methods to care for his equipment. They go farther and involve the selection of the correct machine, the best tool, and the right accessories for the work. They require the proper use of equipment, avoid overloading machines or using one that takes too much time to set up when another machine is or can be made available. Carefully established controls, properly set up, will do something else for the supervisor: they will indicate when it is more profitable to replace equipment with more economical machines that are available, and not only will do more work at less cost, but will also absorb the cost of the discarded equipment with a margin of profit left over. Finally the supervisor must see that his men use special-purpose equipment when the volume justifies it. The chart on the following pages illustrates some

[3] See *Quality Control Methods*, T. O. Armstrong, American Management Production Series 131 and *Employee Cooperation in Quality Control.*

WASTE IN INDUSTRY

Waste Possibilities	Responsibility	Recommendation
1. Manpower		
a. Lost time on the job	Management	Better organization, closer supervision and planning
b. Labor turnover	Management	Better selection, training, placement, and closer supervision, planning, and cooperation
c. Accidents and illness	Management and men	Better selection, training, supervision, and follow-up of safe practices
d. Too many men	Management	Better planning, supervision, and managerial efficiency
e. Misfits	Management	Better selection, instruction supervision, transfer, and discharge
f. Lack of skill	Management	Better selection and training, transfer
g. Unnecessary overtime	Management and men	More careful planning and closer supervision
h. Tardiness and absenteeism	Management and men	Personal counsel, incentives, adjustment, transfer, discharge
i. Inefficiency	Management and men	Better instruction, planning, control, layout, discharge
j. Poor morale	Management	Strong carefully planned leadership
2. Material		
a. Metal, copper, zinc, brass, etc.	Management and men	Closer controls, supervision and cooperation
b. Solder, varnish, paint	Management and men	Closer controls, supervision and cooperation
c. Lead	Management and men	Closer controls, supervision and cooperation
d. Tools and equipment	Management and men	Better standards, closer controls, instruction supervision and cooperation
e. Janitor supplies	Management and men	Better standards, proper controls, supervision, and follow-up
f. Office supplies	Management and men	Better supervision, storage, issuance, standards and cooperation
g. Clothing that may be furnished	Management and men	Better selection, care, use, maintenance
h. Cutting oils, lubricants	Management and men	Better specifications, closer supervision, issuance, and cooperation
i. Cartons	Management and men	Closer supervision and cooperation

WASTE IN INDUSTRY (*Continued*)

Waste Possibilities	Responsibility	Recommendation
3. Plant, building, heat, light, power, and equipment		
a. Unused space	Management	Better planning
b. Poor layout	Management	Better planning
c. Material storage and handling	Management and men	Better planning, closer supervision
d. Conveyors, aisles	Management and men	Better planning, supervision, follow-up, cooperation
e. Heat	Management and men	Closer follow-up
f. Light	Management and men	Closer supervision and cooperation
g. Power	Management and men	Closer supervision, better planning, and cooperation
h. Water	Management and men	Closer supervision and cooperation, and maintenance
i. Air	Management and men	Closer supervision, better maintenance, and cooperation
j. Idle machines	Management and men	Better planning, closer supervision, and cooperation
k. Improper machines	Management and men	Better planning
l. Unbalanced production	Management and men	Better planning

of the waste possibilities together with the responsibility for these conditions and some recommendations for action that were developed in one large company.

Summary. The supervisor must be "waste-conscious" and indoctrinate his men with the need for waste control and elimination. He cannot relax his drive for waste control. His success along these lines pays dividends, for himself, for his men, and for the company. He will find it necessary to call upon all his experience, use all his knowledge, his every skill, and all his ability as a leader to control the wastes in his department. Waste is one of the greatest enemies of every supervisor, and success in combating waste is one of the greatest assets any supervisor can possess.

CHAPTER XVIII

MAINTAINING DISCIPLINE

Discipline as a tool of supervision. Discipline as a tool of supervision has always been taken for granted yet it is a many-sided tool and the results of its use vary widely Every supervisor should develop a true appreciation of the meaning of discipline, both positive and negative, and understand the methods of promoting effective discipline. Positive discipline ties together the many responsibilities of the supervisor and the success with which he meets each responsibility depends to a considerable degree on how successful he is as a disciplinarian. Much of the supervisor's success depends on meeting his responsibility for discipline, administering disciplinary action, and maintaining discipline among his men. The supervisor's skill in using discipline as a tool largely determines the quality of his leadership. Supervisors constantly employ discipline to get results but too often the disciplinary action has fear as the driving motive. Discipline has a wider meaning than fear; in fact, successful supervision today rarely employs the negative form of discipline. Present-day labor conditions have tended to eliminate many of the disciplinary actions available to the supervisor in the past, especially those falling under the negative type discipline, yet the supervisor must exercise control over his men.

The nature of discipline. The main objective of discipline is to facilitate coordination, the primary principle in organization, in order that the major objective of the group may be attained. Discipline itself is a major factor in achieving smooth operation of the enterprise and the larger the organization the more essential discipline is to maintaining continued and successful operations. Discipline is not static but is always being developed in one form or another. In its highest form it is a process of growth; even in its lowest form, such as restraints and penalties, it must promote growth in broad areas of conformity if it is to be effective. President Alexander Ruthven of the University of Michigan has said, quoting Edmund Burke, "Society cannot exist unless a controlling power upon will and appetite be placed somewhere; and the less of it there is within, the more there must be without." Then President Ruthven added, "Too many Dil-

lingers spoil the social broth." *Discipline may be thought of as that force which prompts an individual or group to observe rules, regulations, and procedures that are deemed necessary to the attainment of an objective; that force or fear of a force which restrains individuals or groups from doing things that are deemed destructive of group objectives; or the exercise of restraints or enforcement of penalties for the violation of group regulations.* Note this definition includes two types of discipline, positive discipline, or the force which *prompts* individuals, and negative discipline, or that force which *restrains* individuals. Too often discipline is thought of only in the latter sense, or negative discipline.

Positive discipline. Positive or constructive discipline proceeds from within the individual and to a large extent is a habitual reaction to established values, customs, traditions, and regulations. Positive discipline does not restrict the individual but enables him to have a greater freedom in that he enjoys a greater degree of self-expression in striving to achieve the group objective which he identifies as his own. Habitual responses that conform to group activities do not enslave but set one free. Positive discipline enables the individual and group to divert destructive instincts into productive channels without the resultant feeling of frustration. Positive discipline tends to promote emotional satisfactions rather than emotional conflicts. Positive discipline increases the strength of the individual and the group and does not dissipate its energies; it tends to promote a community of interests, thus making possible a higher degree of attainment than would otherwise be possible. Positive discipline promotes coordination and effective cooperation with a minimum of formal organization. Positive discipline can be achieved only when group objectives and procedures are well known and have become a part of the individual's reaction as the result of the process of indoctrination.

Negative discipline. Negative discipline or discipline involving force or some outward influence in its extreme form proceeds on the theory that compliance is secured by the use of punishment or the fear of penalties. In contrast with positive discipline which uses constructive forces to secure the desired action, negative discipline uses deterrent forces to secure the desired action. All forms of negative discipline are not extreme. In actual practice, discipline may vary from positive discipline as manifest by a well-trained group that takes great pride in its skill and ability to the slave soldier who is driven into battle from a greater fear of the consequence of not going into battle. These various steps may proceed by imperceptible degrees

from the highest to the lowest. Certain disciplinary actions may savor of both positive and negative discipline.

Nature herself is a stern disciplinarian. To conform with natural laws results in satisfactions and positive rewards. When the individual identifies his own best interest with natural laws and strives to conform, he derives his greatest satisfactions and therefore this may be considered positive discipline. Such a reaction may be known as enlightened self-interest. A failure to conform with natural laws brings with it deprivation, want, and at times great suffering or even death. The penalty for a failure to conform or conformity only because of fear of the consequences of nonconformity is negative discipline. Conformity through fear of the results of nonconformity is not an extreme form of negative discipline unless the fear complex is a dominating one with the basic desires contrary to the action. Nature's method of disciplinary action has one message for man, namely, its certainty.

Negative discipline is required only when the action of the individual or group is contrary to the established mores, rules, or regulations. It has a place in industry only when the positive incentives or drives go wrong or fail to motivate the individual or the group to the desired action. Negative discipline of the fear type merely secures the minimum performance necessary to avoid the punishment. It usually secures physical compliance but emotional and mental rebellion and antagonism. The person disciplined is likely to be "on side" physically but against the constituted authorities emotionally and mentally. The amount of resistance built up by negative discipline depends largely upon the degree of acceptance of the rule or regulation from which the discipline proceeds. When the rule or regulation, the violation of which requires discipline, is generally accepted by the group and at times by the offending person as reasonable and designed for the greater good, the reaction to the disciplinary action is usually not violent or very unfavorable. At times it may even be welcomed and the individual may feel partly reinstated in his own mind when such discipline has been wisely meted out. When a given rule is fraught with great emotional bias and is supported by a slight majority of opinion or even a minority temporarily in control, disciplinary action intensifies resistance, builds up antagonism, and may readily provoke violence.

Discipline as a tool of management. Discipline is essential to management in guiding the enterprise toward its goal. As we have previously stated, organization is the structural relationship between the various factors in a business enterprise. Coordination is the central

principle of organization, the need for which gives rise to organization. Coordination is not likely to follow when the basic urges or instincts of man are in control; and it is willingly sought and accepted by groups only when they can be shown that their greatest satisfactions are thus obtained. Willing cooperation is the end result of discipline. Coordination is necessary even though individuals are prompted to conform by virtue of a positive attitude toward discipline; it is even more necessary when conformity is secured through negative discipline. Management uses both kinds of discipline constantly in its development of coordination within the organization. It places the major emphasis on the development of positive discipline throughout the organization although when necessary negative discipline is used to enforce the rules and regulations essential to continued coordination. As a tool of management positive discipline serves the following purposes. It facilitates the functioning of the exception principle and minimizes the necessity for detailed instructions when basic principles serve the needs. A group of supervisors cooperate readily when they have been conditioned as a result of positive discipline to the point of thoroughly understanding (1) the principles underlying the organization of which they are a part, (2) the aims of the enterprise, and (3) the policies which guide their work. Supervisors equipped with this knowledge handle their responsibilities with care; they do not need elaborate written procedures or detailed instructions from their superiors. Their decisions are bound to be sound because they are based on a broad background of principles and policies.

Positive discipline minimizes the amount of personal supervision required and aids in the maintenance of standards. The supervisor does not need to stand over an employee to see that he does his work properly. When an employee has been properly introduced and carefully instructed, when he has known the supervisor and has confidence in that supervisor's ability to take care of him, when he willingly cooperates with the supervisor, that employee has been under positive discipline and can be put on his own to produce quantity and quality to his maximum ability. Positive discipline is a standard in itself and thus acts as a reciprocal relationship to the work of employees who have been subjected to its influence. The supervisor who uses positive discipline as a part of the process of training his men may confidently anticipate the expected quantity and desired quality of work from them. Negative discipline, the fear of dismissal, for example, to a limited extent may restrain certain individuals from an overt act or violation. It may serve to prevent the repetition of an act for which a specific penalty has been levied. Although this results

in negative disciplinary action toward the offender and others, however, in mild cases it may be neutral or even instructional. Negative discipline may prompt individuals to perform according to the standard to avoid the penalty as, for example, docking for tardiness, time off for carelessly broken tools, lowered rating in companies where merit rating is used.

Causes of external or negative discipline. Negative discipline should follow only after the supervisor has determined the causes of the offense requiring disciplinary action. Part of the supervisor's responsibility for discipline rests in detecting these causes. The basis for detection is adequate records that fix responsibility. The supervisor should be certain that his inspection reports show the machine and the man responsible for the work. The job tickets must always indicate the man or men who worked on the job and the operations each performed. Detecting causes that demand negative discipline requires the supervisor to follow up to see that adequate instruction is given and that his instructions are being followed in the manner he prescribed. The supervisor's follow-up, however, is dependent on management's providing a sufficient number of supervisors so that each is not overloaded with work to the point where he does not have time to follow up his men. The supervisor, as an inspector, is neither a talebearer nor a spy. Inspection of the work of the men in his department is one of his routine duties and he should see to it that his men recognize it as such. Inspection is to be preferred to secret methods of securing information.

The supervisor should be alert to changes in his men's attitudes or symptoms indicating that something is wrong. Symptoms are tremendously important in detecting acts contrary to the desired standards. Any change in attitude is usually accompanied by a reaction similar to the attitude. Among the causes of offenses commonly listed are: ignorance, accident, failure to try hard enough, incapacity, challenge to existing authority, conflicts of duty and desire, jealousy, discontent, men not kept busy, fear of rate cut, dishonesty, carelessness, desire for money and managerial incompetence.[1]

Dr. John M. Brewer of Harvard University in studying 4,174 cases of discharge found that 62.4 per cent involved personal characteristics.[2] Mr. William C. Ackerey, Secretary of the New York Employment Managers Association, found the following causes for discharge.[3]

[1] For a fuller discussion of this point see Henry P. Dutton, *Principles of Organization,* McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1931, pages 273–90.

[2] See American Management Association, *Personnel,* May, 1940, page 199.

[3] *Op. cit.*

Carelessness	14%	Lack of initiative	7%
Noncooperation	10%	Lateness	7%
Laziness	10%	Lack of effort	7%
Dishonesty	8%	Disloyalty	3%
Attention to outside interests	8%	Discourtesy	2%
		Miscellaneous	24%

The causes of offenses leading to negative discipline, if permitted to continue, develop into offenses resulting very often in discharge. Negative discipline alone cannot cure these causes; positive discipline in one form or another must be used. Instruction is sometimes necessary and explanations of policies or of the importance of the employee's work may be used. New incentives should be developed as needed to stimulate employee's interests, and the successful supervisor will save many men from being discharged with consequent loss to the company, the individual, and society. The supervisor must recognize that positive and negative discipline supplement each other; neither stands alone but each must be used as the situation and the individual require.

Methods of promoting and maintaining positive discipline. The supervisor's responsibility for discipline requires him to create the conditions necessary to develop a positive discipline. High group morale and positive discipline go hand in hand. The conditions which will promote positive discipline have been discussed under group attitudes and group morale.[4] The factors which develop high group morale and likewise positive discipline in the group include: (1) good health, both mental and physical; (2) explicit purposes or objectives known to the group; (3) knowing the employees individually and collectively; (4) fair treatment of the individual in relation to the group; (5) a reasonable sense of security among the group; (6) a sense of "belonging" among the group; (7) a technically well-trained group; (8) recognition where recognition is due; (9) confidence by the supervisor in the ability of the group and the organization to meet all requirements; (10) prompt elimination of rumors; (11) issuance through proper channels of all information that is available; (12) strong effective leadership; (13) avoidance of errors, but willingness on the part of the supervisor to admit an error if it be made; (14) never making issues out of minor infractions; (15) never making personal issues out of matters that should be handled on an impersonal basis; (16) delegation of authority commensurate with responsibility; (17) use of authority sparingly and always without displaying it; (18) decisions made as far down in an organization as responsibility and competence exist; (19) knowledge that discipline cannot be completely routinized since individual differences control; (20) confidence in the men to

[4] See Chapter VIII.

come to their supervisor with their problems; (21) supervisors who understand company policies and standards, who interpret them clearly, impartially, and understandingly, and who observe all regulations personally.

A new approach to discipline. The analytical approach to many industrial problems is nothing new. The research attitude toward production and sales problems has been emphasized for many years and university laboratories and staffs have been frequently utilized to find solutions to difficulties met in manufacturing and marketing. Only recently, however, has the analytical or clinical approach been adopted toward disciplinary problems and this approach emphasizes the causal phase of the problem. The emphasis is placed not on the violation but on the causes of the violation and the attitude of the person involved. Disciplinary actions are adjusted to suit the needs of each situation as determined by the causal relationships. This attitude toward discipline seeks to bring about a behavior change and is little concerned with the punishment aspect. Disciplinary action based on this approach presupposes an understanding of human nature. Too often the supervisor lacks this understanding and his handling of disciplinary cases reacts unfavorably both on the individual involved and the supervisor. Throughout the previous pages the importance of understanding employees has been emphasized and nowhere does the supervisor need both a knowledge of the principles underlying human nature and of the men in his department more than in his administration of discipline. Glen U. Cleeton in a recent discussion on discipline refers to this lack of understanding on the part of supervisors. The table below itemizes the points at which he finds this understanding lacking and suggests methods of correction to be used.[5]

Points Often Overlooked	Methods of Correcting
The employees' "reasoning" is biased by feelings and emotions; hence, things that seem logical to management may not appear so to the employee.	Since reasoning is biased, repeated appeals to logic must be made. A lesson in the effect of repetition and dramatic presentations might be learned from advertisers.
Their daily experiences cultivate greater loyalty to their fellow workers than to the company.	Inter-employee loyalties are not in themselves destructive. Where antagonism to company policies has been reduced to a minimum, this sense of group loyalty may be an asset.

[5] Adapted from *Personnel*, May 1940, pp. 201–2, Glen U. Cleeton, "The New Approach to Employee Discipline."

Points Often Overlooked	Methods of Correcting
There is often a feeling of insecurity based on false beliefs concerning the attitude of foremen and supervisors.	The feeling of insecurity prevalent among many workers can be reduced by using discharge as a means of clearing out undesirables and incompetents rather than as a threat to secure compliance with regulations. It is no longer considered good personnel practice to permit foremen and supervisors to discharge workers on their own authority. This power should be centered in a higher official.
Workers often feel that they deserve a better job than the one they now hold.	Pride in one's job can be encouraged. Some firms play up the importance of jobs in carefully written leaflets, house-organ stories, and special awards for competent performance.
Workers are subjected quite frequently (almost continuously of late years) to propaganda unfavorable to their employers.	Propaganda of an unfavorable character can be met better by counter-propaganda than by criticizing and cursing the source of the unfavorable propaganda.
The immediate supervisor is the company to many workers (and he may be failing to carry out the policy of the company with respect to employee relations).	Since the immediate supervisor represents the company to the employees, the selection and training of foreman and supervisors is extremely important. Lack of skill and judgment on the part of a foreman often creates disciplinary problems. A foreman who knows human nature and likes men can secure employee cooperation and thereby reduce the necessity of having cases brought to the attention of higher-ranking officials.
Every worker wants individual recognition—to be known, praised, and given evidence of confidence in his work.	Foremen should know their men by name, show an interest in some of the personal elements in the lives of individual workers, and be ready to praise where credit is due.
The worker must have explicit and detailed instructions. *Human capacity for misunderstanding is almost limitless.*	Instructions should be patiently and clearly stated. Some instructions should be given both verbally and in written form. Repetition is often necessary. Every supervisor should be a good teacher.

Points Often Overlooked	Methods of Correcting
He likes to express opinions and make suggestions, and if given an opportunity to do so is more likely to strive to do his job in the manner expected of him.	Encourage employees to offer suggestions. Give credit for good ones.

The emphasis in the clinical or analytical approach to discipline is placed on understanding of individual differences. The use of this method requires supervisors who are: (1) well grounded in the fundamentals of human nature, (2) appreciative of difficulties arising from individual differences, (3) skilled in the techniques of learning to know and understand men, and (4) willing to apply the scientific approach to their disciplinary problems.

The principles underlying negative discipline. There are occasions when every supervisor must fall back on negative discipline as a last resort. As such occasions arise there are certain principles which must be followed in order that the disciplinary action may be soundly conceived and meted out. It must be recognized that in the use of negative discipline it is the certainty of the punishment and not the severity that is the important factor. The punishment must never do violence to the group's sense of fair play and the supervisor must recognize the importance of the group's being in accord with the severity of the punishment he inflicts. Fines cannot be in proportion to the damage done to expensive equipment. As a matter of fact, fines are usually of questionable merit unless they consist largely in withholding premiums or bonuses that would otherwise have been earned. Fines must be carefully handled or they will increase the breach between the men and the supervisor at least for a time. Negative discipline has only a limited use as far as compliance is concerned. Up to a certain point its use is effective but a parallel can be drawn between the supervisor's driving and leading his men and his use of negative and positive discipline. Either driving men or negative discipline will work just so long, then the effects are negligible as far as the desired results are concerned. In the long run leadership and positive discipline go hand in hand achieving the aims of efficient management and the successful supervisor.

Negative discipline having been once administered should be forgotten on the theory that the price has been paid. It should be made a matter of record, not to be mentioned again unless the same offense or other ones are repeated. Careful records, however, on the employee's qualification card should be kept for future guidance. Negative dis-

cipline should always be kept on an impersonal basis and whenever possible should always be meted out in private. In a mild form negative discipline may be helpful in attaining positive discipline from persons of average or less intelligence. The penalties inflicted as a part of this form of discipline should be relatively automatic, certain, and, in general, related to the offense. Anger should never enter into administering discipline. The disciplinary action should never destroy the individual's self-confidence but rather encourage him to build his confidence anew after the price has been paid. The penalty should not take away the incentive to remedy the error. On the other hand, we should not give special privileges to offenders over and above the conscientious employee who does his work and does not require disciplining.

When discipline results in discharging a man. The same care should be exercised in disciplinary cases involving discharge as is taken in the employment process. Causes should be carefully determined and recorded. The employee should be informed and should be given a hearing by someone immediately above the discharging supervisor. A supervisor should be permitted to discharge only from his department and not from the plant or company as a whole.

Summary. Discipline is that force which prompts an individual or group to observe rules, regulations, and procedures that are deemed necessary to the attainment of the objectives; that force or fear of a force which restrains individuals or groups from doing things that are deemed destructive of group objectives; or the exercise of restraints or enforcement of penalties for the violation of group regulations. The two types of discipline include negative discipline which emphasizes the fear element or punishment factor and positive discipline which emphasizes the motivating factor or incentive. Positive discipline identifies the individual's and the group's objectives with those of the institution and is to be preferred to negative discipline. Almost the only phase of negative discipline that is permanently effective is certainty.

The successful supervisor is found to be a wise leader who enables his followers to widen their opportunities for self-realization and self-expression. Sound discipline is largely a teaching function with a minimum of deterrents. Constructive discipline tends to follow when a group is kept busy doing productive things, especially when the members of the group know *why*. A well-trained, efficient group is usually a well-disciplined group since the two relationships are reciprocal. Negative discipline is now supplemented largely by constructive discipline but when negative discipline is used it should always be

impersonal. Women tend to make a personal issue of most matters of discipline thus raising complex problems in negative discipline. The leader who leads as a matter of right inherent in his ability, foresight, and temperament, and not in mere position, seldom encounters the need for negative discipline.

The following analysis of discipline by a group of supervisors lists the more common violations with suggested causes and cures.

AN ANALYSIS OF DISCIPLINE BY A GROUP OF FOREMEN

Violations	Causes	Cures
1. Criticism of working conditions	Jealousy, mismanagement, favors	Instructions, good example, if possible remove cause
2. Tardiness and absenteeism	See Chapter XV	
3. Dissatisfaction and spreading unrest	Work conditions, wages, equipment, leadership	Work conditions, transfer, square deal
4. Spread disloyalty to company	Discontent	Investigate, square deal, penalty
5. Willful disobedience	Lack of interest, spite, jealousy	Investigate, square deal, penalty
6. Fooling	Not enough work, clownishness	Keep busy, personal talk, morale of department
7. Misrepresenting management	Dissatisfaction, ignorance	Working conditions, square deal, transfer or discharge
8. Poor housekeeping	Carelessness, lack of interest	Personal talk, example, competition
9. Lack of appreciation and discontent	Lack of knowledge or interest	Create interest and instruction
10. Visiting	Not kept busy	Personal talk, square deal, firmness
11. Withholding efficiency	Fear of rate cut, short time	Honesty, square deal, personal talk
12. Washing up ahead of time	Rate too high, habit, washroom facilities, desire to get out	Correct rate, insist on quality of work, firmness
13. Reading	Break down, desire for news, out of material	Keep busy, insist on quality of work, permit reading in case of breakdown
14. Gossip	Jealousy, curiosity for news	Investigate, personal talk, square deal, remove cause, penalty
15. Slighting work	Desire for money, lack of knowledge, laziness	Personal talk, square deal, pride, close inspection, penalty
16. Dishonesty	Low wage, severity of discipline, natural crookedness	Investigation, pride, square deal, possible discharge
17. Removing safety devices	Greed, selfishness, indifference	Personal talk, square deal, danger to self, penalty
18. Minor waste	Lack of knowledge, desire for money, laziness	Personal talk, instruction, firmness, penalty

CHAPTER XIX

RECORDS AND REPORTS

The supervisor's responsibility for reports. The four operating fundamentals of organization it will be recalled are the logical outgrowth of the primary fundamentals of organization.[1] The first three of the operating fundamentals deal directly with or are necessarily tied in with some form of record keeping or report writing.[2] The operating fundamentals are: (1) the development of an adequate system, (2) the establishment of adequate records, (3) the laying down of proper operating rules and regulations, (4) the exercise of effective leadership. The second one, the establishment of adequate records, is the theme of this chapter. It must ever be remembered that adequate records can only be maintained provided the necessary reports are available, even in a simple form, from which to compile the records. Reports range all the way from the inspector's report to the comprehensive survey.

The submission of reports is one of the most important functions of the supervisor. If the supervisor has the ability to present properly the subject at hand for the consideration of his superior, he has an unfailing way of securing the approval of that superior. The reason for this is easy to ascertain. The ability to prepare a concise report, which is direct and to the point and which covers all the necessary facts, without at the same time wasting space by the inclusion of nonessentials, is the best possible evidence that the supervisor has an understanding of his work, has completely thought through and analyzed the situations that have confronted him, and that, in short, he has successfully mastered his job and is the type of person who may accept increased responsibility.

Record keeping and reports have caused many supervisors to complain about the clerical work required of them. Many a supervisor has excused the shortcomings of his department on the grounds that he was snowed under with paper work and was unable to get out into

[1] See Chapter I, page 5.

[2] See Richard Lansburgh and William R. Spriegel, *Industrial Management*, John Wiley & Sons, New York, 1940, page 67, for an extended discussion of these principles.

his department. Some supervisors have insisted that they were responsible only for production not for record keeping and reports and that the accounting, statistical, and production control departments which required reports of him were nonproductive departments. Management today, however, is placing increased emphasis on reports; and the success of mass-production methods, the split-second timing of assembly lines, is in a large measure made possible by reports and records. Each supervisor must assume the responsibility for reports and the successful supervisor has already recognized *the place and the importance of reports in the effective operation of the enterprise, his responsibility for reporting, the need for records in his own department, and the ways in which he may use them to operate his department more efficiently.*

Records and reports must be used as aids in controlling the work of the department but under no circumstances should they control the supervisor to the point of taking time that he should devote to other responsibilities. The supervisor and management should recognize the inherent danger in considering report and record keeping merely as "red tape." The supervisor who has become record-conscious and handles reports and records effectively has a promotional asset, for management today is on the lookout for such men. A department and its supervisor stand out when the reports of that department come in on time, clearly written, and the operation of that department indicates that the supervisor is basing his actions and decisions on the analysis of the facts contained in these reports. Every supervisor in his contacts with his superior must constantly answer questions concerning his department, its production, down time of the machines, costs, and waste. He cannot have the facts available to answer such questions unless they are assembled in advance and are available in the form of reports and records.

The supervisor should accustom himself to making good written reports as it is one of the ways by which he is judged. Initiative, knowledge of his job, ability to handle men and get production are qualities which are always sought in a supervisor, but these may not be sufficient when he is being considered for promotion. If in addition he can make a clear concise report which deals directly with the subject at hand and contains all the essential facts without unnecessary detail, he proves to management that he is the master of his job. Such a report indicates a clear understanding of the work of his department and gives evidence of his ability to confront a situation, analyze its elements, and solve it intelligently. These are the extras management

looks for when it examines its supervisory force for candidates for higher executive positions.

The need for reports.[3] A report is a statement of facts concerning a particular situation and may be either verbal or written. Written reports become the basis for records which tabulate and summarize reports. In the final analysis both reports and records are only a substitute for memory. In the early days of industrial history when the owner-manager had his own shop and did all his own work, records were comparatively unnecessary to him. When the individual enterpriser's shop grew and he hired a helper, reports and records became a necessity to continued growth and expansion. But today the professional man, for example, a doctor, who as an individual is in business for himself, must report on his work and keep records so as to be informed concerning his patients, the collection of his bills, and the preparation of his income-tax return. In his case he must have clinical records to supplement his memory and provide him with readily accessible facts when he requires them.

Reports are essential to the successful operation of any enterprise. They are the basis for decisions and serve to check the judgment of past decisions. A report of today's operations is a check on yesterday's judgment. The steps in formulating sound judgment include securing all the facts and analyzing those facts. The average person must record facts as he collects them in order to have them available for analysis. Any careful analysis of facts requires that they be arranged and rearranged in written form for study if sound judgment is to be exercised and well-considered decisions reached. The larger the enterprise the greater the need for reports and records since many decisions must be made far removed from the place of operations and can only be based on reports and records summarizing many reports. The more departmentalized the organization is, the more highly it is functionalized, the greater the need of each department for reports from those other departments with which its work must be coordinated. Every enterprise depends on coordination for successful operation, but coordination is impossible unless facts are available, and facts are only available in a large enterprise in written form as reports. Mass production is based on standardization of parts and standardization of manufacturing procedure. Standardization can only be made effective when reports are available to determine deviations from

[3] The reader should review Chapter II, page 16, which discusses records as a part of organization, and their use in developing system and applying the "exception principle."

standards. The exception principle has been discussed previously[4] and the need for reports in order that this principle may operate effectively has been emphasized.

What is true of the need for reports by the enterprise as a whole is equally true in the supervisor's operation of his own department. He must have reports in order that he can formulate sound judgments and check his own past decisions. He must keep the other departments with which he must coordinate his operations informed of the operations in his department, and he likewise requires reports of the conditions in the other departments in order to cooperate with them. He requires reports from his own department since he should not depend on verbal opinions from his own men who rely on their memories for the facts he needs. Reports and records replace "hunches" and are the facts the supervisor must have today if he is to operate his department successfully.

Types of reports. There are three types of reports: (1) periodic standardized reports, (2) intermittent standardized reports, and (3) special reports. Every supervisor is familiar with the periodic standardized reports required of him and his department. Such reports include those dealing with daily or hourly production, inspection and rejection, spoilage, costs, etc. Then there are the reports which are standardized but required only at intermittent intervals. These include accident reports, termination reports, tool breakage, and machine repair reports. Special reports are required of the supervisor according to the conditions that exist and certain special requirements. Such requirements may include a change in process, a change in personnel, as from men to women, costs on manufacture of a new product, a survey to decrease indirect costs such as waste or turnover. The supervisor may present special reports not required of him to his superior on facts he has observed, difficulties he has solved, or suggestions he may want to make.

Every report in part discharges the responsibility of a supervisor to his superior. It is the completion of a task, the end of an assignment. Just as an order should communicate all information essential to appraisal of performance, every report should contain all the necessary facts to arrive at a sound decision. Too often reports will omit vital facts without which a decision is not possible or may lead to decisions that will prove unsound.

The prime requisite of a report is that it shall serve some useful purpose. It is unfortunately true that many reports are required which

[4] See page 15.

serve no useful purpose or which require facts and data which are not essential and may even cloud the issue. Many reports are found which require information which was needed when the original report was designed but since then have become outdated and are no longer necessary. Such requirements and reports have prejudiced many men against them and the system they make possible. Unnecessary reports have also served to tie supervisors to their desks when they should be out in their departments supervising the men, machines, and materials for which they are responsible. If reports are to be an aid to the operation of the exception principle, if they are to be used effectively by the supervisor and management as a tool of management, such situations must be avoided. Otherwise a condition will soon arise in which reports will not be read and will not serve as a basis for action.

The supervisor will ordinarily delegate to one of his men the responsibility for assembling and preparing on the proper form the data on the periodic standardized reports. The supervisor will only review such reports, periodically spot checking the data to make sure it is correct. Then he will initial and pass on such reports to his superior or route them to the proper department. The supervisor should not just file the carbon copy of such reports but periodically review them for a period of time to determine if any trends are indicated or unusual facts are evident which need to be traced to their source.

Intermittent standardized reports are required when something unusual arises for which a report is required. Accident reports are one example of the intermittent report. Such reports may be prepared by someone else in the department but must be reviewed carefully and usually investigated personally by the supervisor. Frequently these reports may indirectly form the basis of a criticism of the supervisor and his department and therefore he must be familiar with all the facts and must be prepared to defend the act which gave rise to the report.

Special reports are those required of the supervisor by his superior and by other departments, together with such reports as he may develop on his own initiative dealing with problems which he feels should be brought to the attention of his superiors. These reports provide a real opportunity for the supervisor to bring himself to the attention of management. Every organization is on the lookout for men with shop background who have the ability to analyze difficult situations and make recommendations for eliminating the difficulties. Reports are one method frequently used to test men who are being considered for promotion on their ability to collect and analyze facts. Drawing conclusions from reports and records is an essential require-

ment of the man being considered for a major executive position today.

One type of special report met by many supervisors is the preliminary budget estimate wherein the supervisor must forecast his operations for the next period which may be a month, three months, or even a year. This forecast together with those of other departments may properly form the basis for the company's budget, estimating all expenditures for the period. Too often supervisors fill in the required data hastily, complaining meantime about the reports they are required to make. They overlook the fact that their estimates are later used to measure their departmental performance and they may often be required to stay within their hastily conceived estimates. The right way for the supervisor to approach any special report is to put himself in the other fellow's position; here the other fellow is management. Management must know in advance the needs of the various departments, their requirements in terms of manpower, machines, materials, and all the other factors that go into the operation of the department. This is information even the supervisor should have if he is to assist management in controlling the operation of the enterprise as a whole and his department as a part of it. He will analyze the past experience in his department, consulting the records which are available to him. He will analyze the current conditions in his department, the condition of his equipment, the turnover of his personnel. In the course of such an analysis he will uncover facts that should enable him to operate his department more efficiently in the future than in the past.

Industry today has become control-minded because the application of mass-production techniques to manufacturing makes controls a necessity. If the company is to produce its products in the quantity required, at the time specified for delivery, and at the estimated cost, each operation on the product must be performed at the specified time, in the required amount, at or near the estimated cost. This can only be made possible through controls derived from reports and records. The supervisor will find that it will pay him dividends to become control-minded also. He must learn to operate his department in the same way management plans the operation of the entire enterprise, and to base his decisions and actions on the reports he receives from his men, the reports he prepares for his supervisors, the records that are available to him or that he develops for his own use.

Reports and records are the lifeblood of the business. They give the facts concerning the operation of the enterprise and point out the progress of the work and its cost. Their preparation and use make possible the elimination of guesswork by management. Only through

records can the supervisor keep informed about his men and their work, the materials he uses, his equipment, and the inspection of the work produced by his department. Most important among records are cost records, because every business financed by private funds must control its costs or fail to survive. Yet it is only through the reports made by the supervisor and his men that management can compile the records which will give them control over operations and keep them informed of current progress and which will bring to light the trouble spots.

The need for caution. There is need for a word of caution concerning the inherent dangers in reports. Every organization must beware of either too many or too few reports. The only value of reports and records is their use. Too many reports pile up records which are not used and which readily develop into red tape. Excess duplication of reports and the records compiled from them by different departments and those reports which are unnecessary in themselves or contain irrelevant or outdated facts only lead to a mass of records which become burdensome and are not used. Although system is essential to a successful organization and is largely dependent on reports and records, if carried too far it can defeat its own purpose. Any time the cost of the reporting and records is greater than the savings they account for, then such reports and records should immediately be discarded. On the other hand, too few reports provide insufficient records and there is always the danger of inadequate facts leading to unsound judgment. Ideally, the right number and kind of reports and records compiled from them tell the management the exact status of the business as a whole and in detail.

Reports are an essential to the supervisor in the operation of his department. He will require reports and records, which may not be required of him by management, to keep himself informed on his department. He must likewise be careful not to require too many or too few records of his own men. He must be certain that the reports he receives give him exactly the information he needs to be well informed, and at the same time that they do not include unnecessary data. The test of any good report is whether or not it provides exactly the information needed at the time and on the subject under consideration. The supervisor should strive to make the reports and records in his department meet the ideal of providing an accurate picture of his department as a whole and at the same time show the details necessary for efficient operation.

Some suggestions for preparing reports. If it is possible the supervisor should review every periodic and intermittent standardized re-

port that goes out of his department. *He should see that it is properly made out, that all the items are accounted for, and that it is neat and legible and accurately compiled.* Occasionally a supervisor, when some difficulty arises, has had his superior check back to the original report that gave the facts and has been ashamed of the appearance, inaccuracy, and inadequacy of the report when they looked it over together. Frequently the supervisor is not able to see all the reports that leave his department but he should delegate the responsibility for those reports to someone whom he has carefully instructed and indoctrinated with the need for neat, legible, and accurate reports.

Promptness is an essential in the supervisor's meeting his responsibility for reports. Reports that are late are often compiled in a hurry and are likely not only to be inaccurate but also to delay the making of decisions. One late minor report from one supervisor will delay the preparation of an entire major report for management, perhaps resulting in a faulty decision. The supervisor whose reports are always on time, legible, and accurate is not only meeting one of the major responsibilities of his position but also will find that it pays him big dividends.

Special reports, either those required of him or those which he may originate, provide a major opportunity for the supervisor to render a real service to his superiors. Management may decide to test new tools or materials in one department and ask for a report on them. This is not just putting an extra burden on the supervisor and his department, it is a chance for the supervisor to show what he can do in the way of collecting facts and analyzing them. The management is interested in his conclusions and expects these conclusions to be intelligent and to be presented in his report in a concise and understandable manner. Every supervisor has run into trouble of various sorts and after careful study has found ways and means of meeting it. Too often, however, he feels there is not the time to prepare a report on the situation for his superior so other departments can also have the advantage of what he has learned; or he may not know exactly how to do it and, lacking confidence in his ability to prepare the report in presentable fashion, he fails to reveal his ability to meet difficult situations and find a satisfactory solution.

Elaborate reports should always be concise, first presenting the summarized facts and conclusions and then following with the detailed data necessary to the particular solution. Any facts that can be treated statistically should be reduced to this basis for figures will illustrate the comparative situation far better than page after page of written material. Wherever possible graphs and charts should be used

to visualize facts. Management will grasp facts more readily if they are presented simply and clearly through the use of tables of figures and charts. The report should also state the method used to arrive at the conclusions. The supervisor may test his report by examining it to see if it gives the facts in such a form that a busy executive can grasp the objective, method, and conclusions immediately and then, if he desires, find clearly stated within the report the answers to any questions he may have about the conclusions or methods used. In preparing his report the supervisor will find again that it pays to plan. He will prepare an outline in advance and write his report from this outline, revising the writing until it says what he wants to say simply and clearly.

Using reports and records. The supervisor will find reports and records invaluable to him in operating his department. Reports made to him by his men and records compiled from past reports are one of the foundations of his planning. Handling the standardized reports required of his department properly will indicate to other departments his willingness to cooperate and will win their cooperation for him. When the supervisor gives assistance to the inspection department in solving a difficulty by including extra data on the regular reports or setting up additional controls and reporting on them, he earns their confidence and in return gains their cooperation.

Reports on his men and records of their ability and performance are essential to the supervisor in every action he takes with reference to them. He must have reports from his subordinates and records of his own to substantiate discharges when they are necessary. Promotions and transfers should be based on records so that the supervisor can defend and justify his action should it be questioned by his men or his superior. No supervisor should depend on his memory if it can possibly be avoided. Reports and records are his way of eliminating the need for remembering a mass of facts, whether they are about his men, the production of his department, or other pertinent items.

The supervisor's notebook. Many supervisors have found a notebook valuable in recording the information they need about their men and their department. It has been emphasized throughout these pages that the supervisor must know his men, he must recognize their individual differences, their capacities, their strong points and weaknesses, what they have done and failed to do, and this is only possible if he records this information about his men. His memory, unless it is unusual, will never hold all this information. A notebook with a page devoted to each man and recording each unusual contact will enable the supervisor to have a complete record of each of his men should it

be required. Such a notebook can also be used to record facts about problems in his department concerning material, inspection, storage, waste, and other items as they arise. Such a notebook can provide material for a report by the supervisor on his men and his department whenever required. The time involved in maintaining this record is relatively slight compared with the valuable tool it will become to the supervisor. The supervisor who has learned the lesson of "putting it down" instead of depending on his memory has laid the foundation for meeting his responsibility for reports. Reports are no problem to the man who has the facts readily available.

Efficiency in supervision. The supervisor's efficiency is dependent on his ability to make or get decisions. His men look to him for decisions, he is constantly faced with questions from them requiring answers. In many cases he can make the decision only if he has available to him without delay all the facts bearing on the situation. Good supervision is evidenced in the ability to take care of difficulties as they arise, never permitting them to gather dust because he does not have the facts available or cannot analyze these facts and reach a sound decision. Leadership grows out of good supervision and conversely the supervisor who procrastinates and delays action and decisions because of lack of information loses the confidence of his men.

The supervisor must have control of his department and his men and this control to a large degree is based on reports and the records he maintains. Where the information is not available, the supervisor must avoid snap decisions but rather must know how to get the facts rapidly and completely. He must then be able to present them clearly and concisely to his superior for a decision. The supervisor cannot always make the final decision but must go to his superior. Then his success is measured by his ability to have the reports and records available for the superior to review and to give the latter a suggested decision based on adequate and available information carefully analyzed. In either making the decision himself or referring it to his superior, the supervisor's success will largely depend on how effectively he has understood and met his responsibility for recognizing the need for reports, his maintaining records based on the reports he has obtained from his departments, and his use of these reports and records in his supervision and the operation of his department.

CHAPTER XX

THE SUPERVISOR AND LABOR RELATIONS

The supervisor and labor relations. In the final analysis the real labor relations of any enterprise are those day-by-day relations that exist between the workers and their supervisors and work associates. There may be functional departments such as public relations, employment, safety, medical, educational, personnel, psychological, and others acting independently or in various combinations, but these departments are always facilitating departments representing management and not in the direct line of control. Unfortunately, at times, a strong personnel department may take away from a weak line organization responsibilities that belong to the line. Such a procedure does not strengthen the organization structure as a whole, but tends to weaken the entire enterprise. It is becoming increasingly important that all the members of a business enterprise understand the basic principles of good organization and strive to develop in such a manner as to give maximum organic unity rather than strong departments in one place and weak ones in another. Balance is a basic principle in all good organizations. The line supervisor cannot discharge his responsibility for satisfactory labor relations by merely saying that the personnel department will take care of the grievances, imaginary or real.

Labor relations are a continuing relationship that begins with the prospective applicant's first contact with the organization and continues as long as the individual remains an employee. It might even be said that indirectly labor relations begin in the community even before the individual makes his first contact with the enterprise, for the general reputation that the business enjoys in the community influences in a vital way the attitude that the worker brings to his work. Personal contacts with the employee are modified as far as his reaction to them is concerned by his attitude toward the company. Community attitudes may not represent current practice, yet they must have arisen out of previous practices, hence, it is highly important that personnel policies be carefully integrated with overall company policies. The line supervisor is the key man in interpreting and carrying out company policies. His is a responsibility that cannot be successfully delegated to another. Functional departments may assist the line

supervisor, but in the final analysis labor relations will be satisfactory or unsatisfactory in proportion to the effectiveness of the line supervisors in their relations with their men.

By-passing the line supervisor. Prior to the 1930's the foreman was not only the key man in production but he was in a very real sense the man who *represented the management to the men* and *represented the men to the management.* With the advent of the NIRA and the growth of employee representation and, later, outside unions, there has developed a situation that is thoroughly unsatisfactory from the standpoint of effective operations. The foreman is still the key man and grievance procedures in many union contracts provide specifically that the grievance shall first be laid before the foreman for adjustment. Unfortunately there seems to be a tendency in human nature to want to talk to the "big boss" and not to the regularly constituted organizational representative. On all sides complaints come from supervisors that union representatives are going over their heads and getting concessions from middle or top management that the foremen themselves cannot grant. At times an entire change in policy is agreed to by top management; the union representatives report to their membership the evening of the agreement, and the men come to work in the morning fully informed as to the agreement only to find that their supervisors have not as yet been told of the changed policy. This type of by-passing weakens the leadership of the supervisors in a way that top management little realizes. It must be frankly admitted that the "old-time" foreman frequently abused his authority, yet this does not in any way justify some of the recent trends to hold the foreman responsible for the results in his department, at the same time creating conditions that make it very difficult for him to discharge his responsibilities.

The foreman and the personnel department. Frederick Taylor's functional foremen provided for the shop disciplinarian.[1] In our modern organizational structure we have no person who corresponds to the *shop disciplinarian* of Taylor's program, yet our modern *industrial relations manager* performs most of the functions that Taylor had in mind. As previously stated in this chapter, the personnel department is a functional or facilitating department that is designed to relieve the foreman of certain tasks that can best be performed by specialists. The hiring function performed by the employment department relieves the foreman of a time-consuming responsibility. In a well-manned

[1] Frederick Winslow Taylor, *Shop Management,* Harper and Brothers, New York, 1919, page 104.

employment office the hiring is completed, subject of course to rejection by the foreman if the new man does not meet the requirements of the job. In actual practice rejections are few. The personnel department performs some of the tasks related to introducing the employee to his job. This does not relieve the foreman of his responsibility but aids him in this task. The personnel department renders valuable service to the foreman in special disciplinary problems, the adjusting of certain types of grievances, problems of training, items involving employees' records, transfers, and promotions to other departments. The foreman should look upon the director of personnel as a specialist in his field in the solution of knotty problems. The personnel director should strive to become worthy of the title, "specialist in human relations," and encourage the foremen to consult him regarding their problems. Such mutual respect and confidence inevitably leads to a better understanding between the line officers and the personnel division and manifests itself in more harmonious labor relations.

The National Labor Relations Act. Section 7*a* of the National Industrial Recovery Act of 1933 reads as follows:

> Employees shall have the right to organize and bargain collectively through representatives of their own choosing, and shall be free from the interference, restraint or coercion of employers, or their agents, in the designation of such representatives or in self-organization, or in other concerted activities for the purpose of collective bargaining or other mutual aid and protection.
>
> No employee, and no one seeking employment, shall be required as a condition of employment to join any "company union" or to refrain from joining, organizing, or assisting a labor organization of his own choosing.

Under Section 7*a* of the NIRA, company unions and independent unions grew rapidly. Industrial peace did not come about as rapidly as the proponents of this legislation had hoped. Several labor boards in various industries were set up to try to bring about more amicable labor relations. These boards were created by executive order of the President. Later the President created the National Labor Board of seven members with Senator Robert Wagner as chairman. This seven-man board gave way to a three-man board, July 9, 1934, which continued to function until May 27, 1935, when the Supreme Court declared the National Industrial Recovery Act unconstitutional. The three-man board laid the broad foundation that was followed by its successor, the National Labor Relations Board, that came into existence on the passage of the National Labor Relations Act, July 5, 1935.

1. *Provisions of the National Labor Relations Act.*

a. Section 1 sets forth the *objectives of the act* in part as follows:

It is hereby declared to be the policy of the United States to eliminate the causes of substantial obstructions to the free flow of commerce and to mitigate and eliminate those obstructions when they have occurred by encouraging the practice and procedure of collective bargaining and by protecting the exercise by workers of full freedom of association, self-organization, and designation of representatives of their own choosing, for the purpose of negotiating the terms and conditions of their employment or other mutual aid or protection.

b. Board. The act provided for a three-man board, known as the National Labor Relations Board, the members of which were to hold office for a term of five years with a salary of $10,000 per year.

c. Employees' rights. Section 7 sets forth the basic rights of employees in relation to collective bargaining as follows:

Employees shall have the right to self-organization, to form, join, or assist labor organizations, to bargain collectively through representatives of their own choosing, and to engage in concerted activities, for the purpose of collective bargaining or other mutual aid or protection.

Section 7 follows closely the wording of its predecessor Section 7*a* of the National Industrial Recovery Act of 1933 and should be carefully read and reread by every supervisor of men whose products enter into interstate commerce.

d. Unfair labor practices. Section 8 sets forth in detail five acts that are declared to be unfair labor practices when engaged in by an employer, namely,

(1) Employers must not interfere with their employees in the exercise of their right to self-organization, to form or to join labor organizations and to bargain collectively through representatives of their own choosing.

(2) Employers must not dominate or interfere with the formation or administration of any labor organization or contribute financial aid to the support of such labor organization.

(3) Employers must not encourage or discourage membership in any labor organization by discriminating in hiring, discharge, or in any other condition of employment. This does not forbid a closed shop when the closed shop is determined by collective bargaining with duly authorized employees' representatives.

(4) Employers must not in any way discriminate against employees who file charges against the company under the act or who give testimony before the board under the act.

(5) Employers must not refuse to bargain collectively with duly accredited representatives of their employees.

e. Employees' representatives. Section 9*a* of the Act reads:

Representatives designated or selected for the purpose of collective bargaining by the majority of the employees in a unit appropriate for such purposes, shall be the exclusive representatives of all the employees in such unit for the purposes of collective bargaining in respect to rates of pay, wages, hours of employment, or other conditions of employment: Provided, that any individual employee or a group of employees shall have the right at any time to present grievances to their employer.

f. Unit for collective bargaining. The board is the sole judge of the appropriate unit for collective bargaining. This is a tremendously difficult point to settle when there are conflicting claims between rival unions or rival groups of the same national union. In deciding the appropriate unit for collective bargaining the Board considers the following factors:

(1) The history, extent, and type of organization of the employees in the plant.

(2) The history of their collective bargaining, including any contracts with their employer.

(3) The history, extent, and type of organization, and the collective bargaining of employees in other plants of the same employer or of other employers in the same industry.

(4) The skill, wages, work, and working conditions of the employees.

(5) The desires of the employees.

(6) The eligibility of the employees for membership in the union or unions involved in the proceeding and in other labor organizations.

(7) The relationship between the unit or units proposed and the employer's organization, management, and operation of the plant.

2. *Functioning of the National Labor Relations Board.* The major divisions of the Board are: the *administrative division,* the *legal division,* the *trial examining division,* and the *information division.* The administrative division looks after the general coordination of all of the Board's activities. The secretary of the Board is in general charge of the administrative section. The legal division represents the Board in all legal matters. The trial examining division supervises the trial examiners who hear testimony in the respective regions and prepare reports for the Board. The information division answers questions asked by the general public and represents the Board in its public relations other than its official acts.

Rights of employees under the National Labor Relations Act. The Act was designed specifically to protect the employee in his right to engage in collective bargaining through representatives of his own choice. This Act does not give the employee rights that he did not possess prior to its passage but it does protect him in the exercise of

this right and sets up the machinery to make this protection effective. The Act specifically restricts the acts of the employer that might hinder the free choice of the employees of representatives whom they desire.[2] The Act also protects the employee's right to his job while he is on a legitimate strike to enforce his requests as the result of collective bargaining. If an employer discharges an employee because of union activity the Board has the power to order his reinstatement with back pay from the time of his discharge. The Act also prevents a prospective employee from discrimination because of his union affiliation. In at least one case the Board has ordered an employer to offer two men jobs who were refused employment because of their union affiliations, and the company was ordered to pay these men back pay.

Although an employee is protected by the National Labor Relations Act from coercion by his employer in the free selection of his agent for collective bargaining, he is not protected from the use of force or coercion by members of a union. Men who have no desire to join a union and their employers have been picketed by a union desiring the membership of the workmen. Some state labor relations acts protect the worker from unfair labor practices of both the employer and a union. It would probably be a wise move to amend the National Labor Relations Act to give an employee protection from unfair labor practices of a union. Any person familiar with industrial rivalries and practices of some unions knows full well that union coercion may be as effective as an employer's coercion when it comes to the free choice of employees.

Rights of the employer under the National Labor Relations Act. The Act was designed to protect the employees in the free exercise of their rights to collective bargaining through agents of their own choosing. As such it may very definitely be called class legislation. This statement does not imply that there may not be times where class legislation is justified; however, the Act gives the employer practically no rights save that of appeal to the courts if he feels that an order of the Board is not in keeping with the law. On the other hand, the Act itself does not take away from the employer any right that enlightened management should ever have exercised, at least during the past ten or more years. Some interpretations of the Board, not in the Act itself, may seem to take away from the employer certain rights in dealing with his employees; however, it must be remembered that these interpretations are the Board's interpretations and not inherent in the Act as passed by Congress. The present Board seems to have modified some of the original Board's attitudes and it may not be too

[2] See "Unfair Labor Practices," page 220.

optimistic to hope that with the passage of time the Board's policies will protect the worker's rights to collective bargaining and at the same time recognize the public's interest as well as the employer's interest. There can be no special objection to an employer's asking the Board to certify the proper bargaining agency when a particular union asks for recognition. The Board will now entertain such a request under certain conditions; however, in its earlier procedures this was not true. By all odds the safest approach for the employer is to take the Act literally, keeping in mind that the employees under the Act are guaranteed the right to select their own agents to represent them in collective bargaining and the right to bargain collectively with the employer in all matters that pertain to their work relationships. Since the National Labor Relations Act is the law of our land and has been sustained by the Supreme Court it would be good industrial statesmanship for all employers to strive to operate under the law both in spirit and in fact. This does not mean that the employer has to accept each and every union that claims to represent his men or that it is necessary for all workmen to be organized; however, it does mean that where the men are legally organized and certified as the sole bargaining agency, good judgment requires the employer to work intelligently with the union and not to become an obstructionist on every turn. Enlightened management must show leadership in dealing with unions as in all other managerial responsibilities. All too frequently managers have approached the union relationship with a deep emotional bias which is most certain to manifest itself in unnecessary friction and an unhealthy labor relationship.

The supervisor's responsibility under the National Labor Relations Act. The simple approach to the supervisor's responsibility under the National Labor Relations Act is to recognize his position in the organization. As stated in the chapter covering organization, the supervisor is a representative of his men to management as well as a representative of management to his men. The National Labor Relations Act does not recognize this dual relationship, but the Act has been very clearly interpreted to recognize that the foreman is a representative of management. Anythng that the foreman does that can be interpreted as a violation of the Act is chargeable against the company that he represents. This relationship gives the key to the foreman's responsibility under the Act.

In a very real sense the department foreman is the management as far as the individual workman is concerned. The fact that union representatives often like to by-pass the foreman and go to top management does not change the truthfulness of this statement. The fore-

man in most companies has the power to discharge a workman from his department and in many companies he can discharge the worker from the entire organization. The workman seldom has any contacts with executives above the foreman. To the workmen the foreman is the management. The company may have a published statement as to its union attitude that is strictly in keeping with both the spirit and intent of the National Labor Relations Act yet be guilty of an unfair labor practice if the supervisors, with or without the knowledge of top management, discriminate against workers because of union membership. This discrimination may take the form of discharge, layoff, allotting of disagreeable tasks or shifts, unequal distribution of overtime, derogatory remarks, or any other act designed or having the effect of discouraging union membership. A foreman is guilty of an unfair labor practice when he discourages membership in one union such as the C.I.O. and encourages membership in the A.F.L. Of course, if the particular union in question has a closed-shop contract that has been entered into by the duly elected representatives of a union the foreman may insist that a given employee maintain his membership in the union as a condition of employment. The foreman may under the National Labor Relations Act do anything that he would ordinarily do, such as discharge, promote, lay off, just so long as his action is not discriminatory against the union man because of his union membership. A union man may be treated in exactly the same manner as any other workman just so long as all other workmen are given the same treatment and union membership is not the cause of the action.

The tendency for some disgruntled union men to claim unfair labor practices should cause the foreman to be careful to make records of his acts so that he will be in a position to sustain his position should he be required to do so. Of course, the careful foreman would make records upon which to base his actions even if there were no National Labor Relations Act. Unfortunately, many otherwise able foremen tend to neglect the keeping of accurate records concerning their men. Although disciplinary action supported by records and witnesses is highly desirable, these same records may raise their heads to plague the foreman if he takes more severe action in the case of a union man than that of a non-union man under similar circumstances. This calls for consistency in matters of discipline and other items in which union discrimination may be charged. The safest approach for the supervisor is to study the National Labor Relations Act carefully and to develop a sound philosophy in relation to the Act and to govern his actions scrupulously both as to the letter and the spirit of the Act.

Some supervisors who have been brought up in an atmosphere of anti-unionism have great difficulty in adjusting themselves to the new situation. The more difficult this adjustment the more seriously should the supervisor apply himself to the task. Probably the best way to attack the problem is to study the Act carefully and to strive to find ways and means whereby the Act can be made to work. Concentration upon making the labor relations a success under the law gives greater promise of success than wasting time and energy striving to circumvent its provisions.

APPENDIX A

SUGGESTIONS FOR CONFERENCE LEADERS

Nothing that we can say in this book can possibly take the place of genuine leadership ability which is necessary for successful achievement in all relationships where a number of people are to be influenced. Our major objective in this book has been to set forth in simple terms the essential considerations under each subject considered. It has been our hope to aid the reader in the crystallization of his ideas growing out of his experience, with here and there a new presentation that may not have been included in his experience. For those men who may study this book as an aid in acquiring a background on which to build their experience, undoubtedly many new situations will be presented. It is by no means necessary for any one person to have actual personal experience in many situations to acquire a workable background with which to attack new problems. A constructive imagination supported by a careful study of the experiences of other executives will develop a knowledge and understanding of the principles of supervision that can be used by any normal individual who possesses a balanced personality and a scientific approach.

There are many classifications of leadership. Probably the simplest classification is direct and indirect. The direct leader influences others in a face-to-face relationship or in person. He is found in industry as the direct leader at the work level. As we analyze the leaders above the work level, direct leadership gives way by degrees to indirect leadership until we find the chairman of the board of directors in the large corporations practicing the art of leadership almost entirely by the indirect method. Indirect leadership manifests itself through ideas, inventions, and plans. The techniques of the two types of leadership are essentially different. The conference leader in supervisory training programs must combine the qualities of direct and indirect leadership. The dynamic qualities of the direct leader are required of the conference leader in order to motivate and inspire members of his group to persevere in their quest for additional training. On the other hand, his basic tools are ideas which, when thoroughly appropriated by the members of his group, become controlling forces that carry over long after the conference leader is no longer present.

Another classification of leadership is mental, social, and executive. The mental leader controls by means of ideas—indirect. In the long run ideas are more influential in establishing our patterns of life than any single factor. The social leader directs performance in the presence of the group—direct. The executive leader must combine both mental and social leadership. Some

executives are strong as social or personal leaders but fail when their institution grows beyond the stage of personal leadership. It is highly necessary that the conference leader keep constantly in mind the different requirements of the two types of leadership and that he develop in the minds of his men a keen appreciation of these differences.

One of the characteristics of leadership that is often overlooked by men engaged in training leaders or supervisors is *energy,* both physical and mental. Energy expended in thoroughness attracts attention and wins recognition. Energy enables certain men to carry on after others have fallen by the wayside, thus placing them in positions of leadership. Energy transformed into persistence wins over ordinary effort. Energy manifest by physical and moral courage commands respect and invites followers. Energy concentrated on the solution of problems begets intelligence. Intelligence applied to the continued solution of problems is a large part of leadership. The honors and rewards of leadership are great; so is the price of leadership. A stout heart that is willing to go the second mile is sustained by an energetic mind and body. Energy can be dissipated or allowed to run down unless the batteries are constantly recharged. Hard work and singleness of purpose are the methods of priming the pump and storing up energy for the crucial moment when more energy is required than is being generated.

For each chapter we have prepared a Conference Guide. These can be used as aids for the conference leader or by the individual reader. In developing the conference the leader will strive to get the members of his group to interpret each situation in terms of the particular business enterprise in which the conference is being held. No two conferences even in the same business will be exactly alike even though they are led by the same conference leader. This is exactly as it should be and the conference leader will make a serious mistake if he exerts too much pressure to secure conformity in details. Of course within a broad pattern the conferences within a particular enterprise held relatively close together on the same theme will be alike in principle even though differing in details. Within this broad pattern the conferences will possess organic unity. Tragic results will follow any attempt to up-grade supervisors unless the principles developed meet with top management's approval and conform to current practices. The conference leader will from time to time draw from his group a statement of his company's policy covering the subject under consideration.

Too much lecturing by the conference leader will detract from the contribution of the members of the group. On the other hand, there are times when the leader may open the conference with a ten or fifteen minute talk bringing to the group a new approach for the group's evaluation. Recently some of our most successful conference leaders have reported that their groups have asked them to bring them new information. It must be remembered that the conference cannot rise above the level of the accumulated experience and knowledge of its members. The conference leader may well summarize the discussion at the end of the conference.

Each conference leader should strive to develop skill in the use of the blackboard. A summarized list of thoughts and items under consideration aids the group in its collective thinking when clearly portrayed on the board. The secretary of the conference is also guided in the making of his notes by this blackboard list. Graphs and charts drawn on the board also aid the group to clarify its thinking and to grasp new concepts.

APPENDIX B

CONFERENCE OUTLINE FOR CHAPTER I—THE SUPERVISOR AND HIS ORGANIZATION

Objectives

1. To examine the method of formulating judgment.
2. To see the place of the supervisor in the organization.
3. To analyze the responsibilities of the supervisor.

Introduction

Our company has given us an opportunity to hold this initial and other conferences to enable us to: (1) get acquainted and understand each other's method of thinking; (2) appreciate the point of view and the personal integrity of each other; (3) collectively think through the many situations and problems that may arise, thus having determined lines of action that can be used when we meet these situations and problems. This will require constructive thinking on the part of each of us and the participation of all in the discussions. Among the questions we shall raise and attempt to answer today will be those dealing mainly with the background of methods and definitions needed to start this series of conferences.

Question: Can we apply the steps-to-sound-judgment method in our discussion? How do we get the facts? What are the methods of analysis available to us? Why consider the aims of the enterprise in making our decisions? Why should a decision be final? Always?

Discussion

From the group.

Question: What is a supervisor? Do each of us fit the definition given us? How does the supervisor's job differ from that of his men? Let us take one of our jobs—how does it differ from that of the men we handle?

Discussion

From the group.

Question: As supervisors let us list our responsibilities. (Use the blackboard.) What are we paid to do? Getting the right man for the right job, quality, quantity, promotion, safety, cost control, planning, training. This is a partial list—we can add to it.

Discussion

From the group.

Question: Now let us take this list and break it down, listing those we can share, those we can delegate, and those we can never delegate. (Use the blackboard.)

Discussion

From the group.

Question: In the final analysis, what can we never delegate? Why not? Let's have some illustrations.

Discussion

From the group.

Question: What are the three main tasks of a supervisor? Explain each. How do we carry out each task?

Discussion

From the group.

Question: What is an organization? (Get the definition on the blackboard.) Does this definition fit our company? What are the aims of our company? How are definite lines of authority established? Let us take one of us and trace the line of authority of which we are a part. (Use the blackboard.) Why do we fix responsibility? Do we have gaps? Overlapping? How can these be remedied? Why is regard for the personal equation important to us?

Discussion

From the group.

Question: How does what we have talked about today help us to become better supervisors? How can we use it? What have we learned that will make our work easier, yet more effective?

Discussion

From the group.

CONFERENCE OUTLINE FOR CHAPTER II—ESSENTIALS OF ORGANIZATION

Objectives

1. To examine the meaning of "organization."
2. To analyze the essentials of organization; how the supervisor can use them and what they will do for him.

Introduction

We considered the place of the supervisor in the organization in the last conference. We recognized the important part he plays in the organization

of which he is a part. Now it is necessary to analyze just what an organization is and why a knowledge of organization is essential to the supervisor.

Question: What is an organization?

Discussion

An organization is "a group of individuals working together or cooperating willingly and effectively to a common end." It is the structural relationship between the various factors or functions necessary to achieve a given objective.

Question: What do we mean by "structural relationship"? By "factors or functions"? By "a given objective"?

Discussion

From the group.

Question: What are the qualities always present in a successful organization? Let us define and discuss the meaning of each of these qualities to make sure we understand them. (List on the blackboard.)

Discussion

1. Strong, resourceful leadership.
2. Clearly defined responsibilities.
3. Carefully selected, placed, and trained working force.
4. Standardized methods.
5. Adequate cost and other records.
6. Cooperation.

Question: Which of these qualities do we lack in our department? How can we develop them?

Discussion

From the group, working from the list on the blackboard.

Question: Where does the supervisor fit into the organization? Are supervisors necessary in an organization? Why?

Discussion

A supervisor is the key man in industry representing management to the men and the men to the management. He is the connecting link between men and management. To the men the supervisor *is* management.

Question: How can the supervisor assist in developing good company organization? Can he assist in organization development? Can he help management carry out its organization pattern? (Use the blackboard.)

Discussion

1. Operate his department on the basis of the primary and operating fundamentals of organization.

2. Cooperate with his men and all the other departments.
3. Interpret company policies faithfully and impartially.
4. Keep management informed as to the need for revisions resulting from changed conditions, methods, or materials.

Question: Can an organization soundly conceived and carried out by management help the supervisor? If his department is well organized, how will it help him?

Discussion

From the group.

CONFERENCE OUTLINE FOR CHAPTER III—TYPES OF ORGANIZATION

Objectives

1. To consider the various types of organizations.
2. To discuss the advantages and disadvantages of each type.
3. To understand the organization of which the supervisor is a part.
4. To recognize the need for the supervisor's understanding the factors underlying organization theory.

Introduction

The supervisor of today must be organization-minded. He must use the services of his organization if he is to operate his department successfully. He may have to apply the theory of proper organization to his own department. Only if he understands his own company organization pattern and the principles underlying organization can he successfully carry out his other responsibilities.

Question: What are the various types of organizations? What are the differences between them? How does each function?

Discussion

From the group.

Question: What are the advantages and disadvantages of each type of organization? (List on the blackboard.)

Discussion

From the group, based on the text material and experience of members of the group.

Question: What type of organization do we have? What are its advantages and disadvantages? Could it be improved? How?

Discussion

From the group. (The conference leader should place the company organization chart on the blackboard to facilitate the discussion.)

Question: Why do we as supervisors need to know anything about "organization"? Can we apply the principles of organization to our department?

Discussion

1. To enable us to use the staff departments at our disposal.
2. To develop coordination with other departments.
3. To improve cooperation within the organization.
4. To enable us to represent properly management to the men and the men to management.
5. To enable us to give the "why" of policies, procedures, and methods to the men.
6. To stay within channels of authority.

CONFERENCE OUTLINE FOR CHAPTER IV—INTERPRETING COMPANY POLICIES

Objectives

1. To recognize that the supervisor owes responsibility for interpreting company policies to both management and his men.
2. To analyze the reasons for, the development of, and the use of policies.
3. To consider the ways and means of best interpreting policies to the men.
4. To examine some of our own company's policies.

Introduction

Once the organization is developed then policies must be laid down and applied. Their application depends on the supervisor. Management formulates the policies but the supervisor is the man who must put them across to the men and make the policies work. One of the operating fundamentals is the laying down of proper rules and regulations.

Question: Why must we have policies? Are they necessary? What are they designed to accomplish? In summary, what is the purpose of company policies?

Discussion

1. To maintain discipline.
2. To provide guides to action.
3. Discussion from the group.

Question: Who benefits from sound policies carefully interpreted and completely carried out? How do they benefit? Does this help the supervisor?

Discussion

1. The company.
2. The employees.
3. The public.
4. The supervisor.

Question: Why should the supervisor interpret company policies?

Discussion

1. He is the closest part of management to the men.
2. He represents the men to management.

Question: How can the supervisor carry out this responsibility? What knowledge does he need? How are policies developed? By whom? What are the principles underlying the development of sound policies? Can we list the steps in interpreting policies to the men? (List on the blackboard.)

Discussion

1. Understand and believe in them.
2. Know why they are made.
3. Explain them carefully and thoroughly.
4. Set an example and live up to it.
5. Follow-up.

Question: Where does the supervisor use policies? How? When? Why put policies in writing—aren't they the same as traditions?

Discussion

1. Permanence.
2. Ready reference.
3. No question about them, when they are in writing.

Question: What happens when policies are not impartially interpreted? (List on the blackboard.)

Discussion

1. Jealousy.
2. Confusion.
3. Criticism.
4. Lack of cooperation.
5. The group will add others.

Question: What are the supervisor's responsibilities to management in connection with policy interpretation? To the men? Should policies change? Why? When?

Discussion

From the group.

Question: What have been the chief difficulties you have met in trying to interpret company policies to the men? How did you overcome these difficulties?

Discussion

From the group.

Question: Take several of your company policies and discuss them. Ask these questions. What is the policy? Is it clear? Is it generally understood? How would you apply and interpret it? Does it need revision? If so, how would you go about revising it?

CONFERENCE OUTLINE FOR CHAPTER V—THE SUPERVISOR A REPRESENTATIVE OF MANAGEMENT TO MEN AND MEN TO MANAGEMENT

Objectives

1. To consider how the supervisor meets his responsibility to management and to his men.
2. To discuss what happens when a supervisor becomes partial, leaning either to management's side or the side of his men.

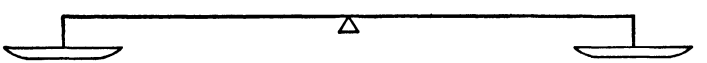
Introduction

The supervisor *is* the management to his men. He also stands between management and the men from the viewpoint of each. Both look to him for guidance. The supervisor relies on management for orders and policies necessary to operate his department while management expects him to keep them informed about the men. This conference is designed to consider the dual relationship of the supervisor.

Question: What are the supervisor's responsibilities? To management? To his men? How does he discharge his responsibilities to both?

Discussion

List each responsibility on the blackboard. Determine whether it is a responsibility to the management, to the men, or to both. Discuss fully how each responsibility is carried out. Develop as illustrated below.



How He Carries Them Out to Management	Supervisor's Responsibility	How He Carries Them Out to Men
Maintaining morale	Handling grievances	Prompt and fair settlement
Improved job performance	Placing each man on the right job	Recognition of ability
Just return of work for pay	Wages	Just payment for work done
Efficient operation of department	Planning and scheduling	Steady flow of work
Providing safety measures	Safety	Instruction and accident prevention work
Rapid rise to productive level	Instructing new men	Training in the best and quickest method

(The group will add others.)

Question: How may a supervisor become overbalanced in the favor of management? What happens when the supervisor favors management in meeting his responsibilities?

Discussion

(Using the blackboard, list what happens.)

1. Grievances.
2. Decrease in loyalty to the company and to the supervisor.
3. Low morale.
4. Increased costs.
5. Increase in accidents.

(The group can add others.)

Question: What happens when the supervisor leans toward the men?

Discussion

(Using the blackboard, list what happens.)

1. Decreased cooperation from management.
2. Failure of the men to understand company policies.
3. The men's taking advantage of the supervisor.
4. Lack of discipline.
5. Loss of prestige and eventually of position.

CONFERENCE OUTLINE FOR CHAPTER VI—PLANNING THE WORK OF THE DEPARTMENT

Objectives

1. To consider the planning necessary to the supervisor in his own work and the work of his department.
2. To analyze what happens when emergencies arise, the effect on planning.
3. To consider the results of poor planning.
4. To analyze what effective planning can do for the supervisor.
5. To develop techniques for planning our own time.

Introduction

Everyone today recognizes the importance of and need for planning. Planning has been defined as the act of thinking ahead and thinking through a job, a subject, or anything that is to be done well and orderly. Planning usually combines the facts at hand with past experience, and results in the development of a definite schedule of action for accomplishing the job ahead. It is quite obvious that the supervisor, knowing the many responsibilities on his shoulders and having a knowledge of the requirements of a good organization, must look ahead and chart his course of action.

Question: Give examples of planning we must do in our departments. What facts do we need before we can plan?

Discussion

1. The order in which work is to be done.
2. Knowledge of equipment and machines, of jobs, of processes.
3. Knowledge of his men.

(The group will add others.)

Question: What are the stages in planning? Why is follow-up so important?

Discussion

1. Routing.
2. Scheduling.
3. Dispatching.

(The group should discuss each of the three points above in detail.)

Question: What are some of the emergencies that arise to obstruct and interfere with planning? What can the supervisor do? Can there be planning for emergencies? Can it be done in advance? Can alternative plans be developed?

Discussion

1. Changed instructions.
2. Changed specifications.
3. Machine breakdowns and tool breakage.
4. Absenteeism and tardiness.
5. Accidents.

(Group will add others. Use blackboard to list interferences and action to be taken.)

Question: What happens when there is a lack of planning or poor planning? How does this affect the supervisor? His men?

Discussion

1. Lowered morale.
2. Loss of confidence by management in the supervisor and by men in their supervisor.

(The group will add others.)

Question: What is the result of sound planning? What does it do for the supervisor? For the company? For the men?

Discussion

1. Develops cooperation.
2. Develops high morale.
3. Saves time.
4. Contributes to coordination.
5. Controls waste.

(The group will add others.)

Question: How can the supervisor plan his own time? What responsibilities must he take care of? How much time must he devote to each? Must each be done daily? Which are daily and which are weekly or monthly? Let us divide the week into days and the day into half-hour periods and schedule our responsibilities accordingly. Should we schedule 100 per cent of our time? If not, how much?

Discussion

The group will work out a plan for standardizing their approach to planning their own time.

Question: Scheduling our time isn't sufficient; how do we keep to the schedule? What will scheduling our time do for us and our departments?

Discussion

1. Enable us to cover all the phases of our job.
2. Give us time for advance planning.
3. Utilize all our time to its fullest advantage.
4. Develop our leadership of the men to a higher point.

(The group will add others.)

CONFERENCE OUTLINE FOR CHAPTER VII—TECHNIQUES AND METHODS OF DISCOVERING AND ADJUSTING GRIEVANCES

Objectives

1. To consider what happens to the supervisor's department when grievances develop or when conditions are such that there is fertile ground for grievances to grow.
2. To discuss some of the typical situations that lead to grievances.
3. To develop some techniques for adjusting grievances.

Introduction

The essential difference between the supervisor and his men is the supervisor's responsibility for getting things done. Success in getting things done is dependent on welding the men into a smooth working departmental unit. How well men do their work depends on how they feel and their attitude toward the company, the supervisor, and the group of which they are a part.

It should be clearly understood in this conference that we are considering only those petty irritations or "gripes" which lead to major grievances when not properly adjusted. We are interested in those articulate and inarticulate minor grievances which when permitted to grow develop into troublesome departmental situations. If the little problems are satisfactorily adjusted the big problems seldom develop.

Question: What is a grievance? Are there several different types of grievances? What are the differences between articulate and inarticulate grievances? What are some examples of each?

Discussion

1. A grievance is anything that an employee thinks or feels is wrong or unfair in connection with his job or his work.
2. An inarticulate grievance is one which the employee thinks about but usually does not talk about.
3. An articulate grievance is one which the employee talks about to other employees or his supervisor.

(Group will give examples of each.)

Question: What are some of the causes for grievances? What are the steps we can take to eliminate these causes?

Discussion

Develop cause and remedy chart on blackboard.

Cause	Remedy
Broken promises	Don't make promises unless you can keep them.
Favoritism	Always be impartial. Never play favorites.
"Passing the buck"	Accept responsibility for your actions.
Poor equipment and tools	Correct the situation.
Gossiping	Keep the men busy.
Poor discipline	Develop positive discipline.
Poor planning	Plan in advance.
Failure to give credit where credit is due	Recognize individual differences and accomplishments.
Misunderstanding	Explain and clarify orders.

(The group will add others.)

Question: What are some of the things we as supervisors are likely to do that may lead to grievances arising?

Discussion

1. Be too reserved or over-friendly.
2. Take all the credit.
3. Make snap decisions.
4. Play favorites.

(The group will add others.)

Question: What are some of the manifestations of grievances? What must we be on the lookout for? List on the blackboard. Are these always indications of a grievance?

Discussion

1. Increased labor turnover.
2. Frequent criticisms and complaints from the men.
3. Gossiping.
4. Decreased production.

5. Poor quality—high percentage of rejections.
6. Carelessness.
7. Poor housekeeping.
(The group will add others.)

Question: When grievances develop what happens to the department? What does it do to production? To quality? To the safety record? To costs? How do grievances affect morale?

Discussion
From the group.

Question: Is there one single thing found to cause most grievances? What can we do about it?

Discussion
Misunderstandings of one form or another. Always give the men the "why." Keep them informed. Interpret company policies properly. Understand your men.

Question: What are some examples of grievances that you have had on other jobs? Had you been the supervisor in the situation, how would you have handled them?

Discussion
From the group.

Question: What steps should be included in a workable grievance procedure for the supervisor to follow?

Discussion
1. What is happening or what situation needs to be influenced?
2. Check list of unusual factors.
3. What seems to be the causes?
4. What is needed for a satisfactory solution?
5. What course of action is to be taken? What should happen?
6. Plan solution.
7. What was done?

CONFERENCE OUTLINE FOR CHAPTER VIII—INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES, GROUP ATTITUDES, AND GROUP MORALE

Objectives
1. To recognize the nature and extent of individual differences.
2. To point out the effect of individual differences and how they influence the actions of people.

3. To consider how the supervisor may take advantage of applying the doctrine of individual differences.
4. To discuss the nature and functioning of group attitudes.
5. To point out the influence of group attitudes and morale on the individual members of the group.

Introduction

It is an accepted fact that the men make the supervisor; his success in handling them determines his own success. The supervisor, as an inherent part of his job must be a human engineer. He must understand people as well as machines. The supervisor will meet problems involving both groups of men and individuals. He cannot solve these problems unless he recognizes and applies the doctrine of individual differences, the principles of group attitudes, and the techniques of controlling and developing group morale.

Question: Do individual differences between people exist? What are some of the physical differences between individuals you have met? The emotional differences? The mental differences? How widely may persons differ in each? (Use the blackboard.)

Discussion

1. Touch, eyesight, height, weight, etc.
2. Patience, high-strung, nervousness, cheerfulness.
3. I.Q., ability to learn, ability to make decisions, to analyze data.

(The group will add others.)

Question: What effect does individual differences have in the department? On getting production? When men are being instructed? How do differences in social environment influence the actions of men? What individual differences do you have in your department?

Discussion

From the group.

Question: How can the supervisor use individual differences in directing the work of his department?

Discussion

1. Putting the right man on the right job.
2. Selection of men to whom to delegate responsibilities.
3. Selection of instructors.
4. Taking disciplinary action.

(The group will add others.)

Question: What is a group? How does it differ from the individual? How does the group function? To what extent does the group influence the individual?

Discussion

The conference group should develop a definition of the work "group." (Use the blackboard.)

Differences between the group and the individual:

1. The group changes more slowly than the individual
2. It is more emotional
3. It can be led more easily than the individual
4. It is slower to start

(The group will add additional differences.)

Question: How must the supervisor meet group attitudes? What group attitudes have members of this group met? How have they handled them? Was this the correct way?

Discussion

1. Being impartial.
2. Settling grievances promptly.
3. Giving the "why" of the situation.

(The group will add others.)

Question: How can the supervisor use group attitudes in directing the work of the department?

Discussion

1. To develop discipline.
2. In promoting safety.
3. To increase production.

(The group will add others.)

Question: What is morale?

Discussion

Morale is the state of mind of individuals and groups growing out of the conditions under which they work including their work conditions, their work, their associations, and the supervision they receive.

Question: What factors contribute to morale? (Use the blackboard.)

Discussion

1. Self-confidence.
2. Opportunity.
3. Leadership under which they work.
4. Materials.
5. Planning.

(The group will add others.)

Question: What can the supervisor do to develop high morale?

Discussion

1. Proper placement of men.
2. Sincere interest in individual—give him a feeling of belonging.
3. Respect for the personal equation.
4. The right man on the right job.
5. Give credit where credit is due.
6. Adjust grievances promptly.

(The group will add others.)

Question: Take a department where morale is high. Analyze the reasons. Take a department where morale is low. Determine the causes for low morale. What can be done to improve the situation?

Discussion

From the group.

It will be advisable to hold several conferences on this subject.

CONFERENCE OUTLINE FOR CHAPTER IX—THE SUPERVISOR AS AN INSTRUCTOR

Objectives

1. To recognize the importance of the instructional responsibility of the supervisor.
2. To discuss methods and techniques of instructing men.

Introduction

We must recognize the supervisor's responsibility for constant and proper instruction of his men, new and old employees in his department. The instruction responsibility is one of teaching the individual how to perform work that is unfamiliar to him, or how to improve his present work methods. It is a job of planning how to tell and show the individual what to do and how to do it most effectively. There are many obstacles which must be overcome but there has been much experience in the instruction field which the supervisor may use to his advantage. Techniques and methods have been developed which he should adapt to his own problems. We should all remember that instruction is a continuous process and never ends. The supervisor must constantly be on the job as an instructor and in supervising the instruction done by others.

Question: What planning must precede instruction? What are the factors that must be considered? How well must you or the instructor on the job know the work?

Discussion

(List on the blackboard.)

1. Knowledge of the job.

2. Break down of the job.
   a. List all the steps involved.
   b. Develop the best available method.
   c. Study the method to determine the proper order of instruction.
3. Emphasis on safety, good housekeeping, and waste.

Question: How were you instructed in the past on the work you have learned? Was it the right way? If not, what was wrong? How should it have been done?

Discussion

There are two types of instruction—intentional and absorption. The intentional method is the carefully planned and developed method of training an individual on a job. The absorption method places the responsibility entirely on the person to learn a job through his own efforts.

Question: What are the advantages of the intentional method of instruction over the absorption method? (List on the blackboard.)

Discussion

1. The man learns the right method of doing the job.
2. Reduction in waste of materials while learning.
3. Reduced opportunity for accidents.
4. Provisions for careful follow-up.
5. Lower instruction cost.
6. Takes less time to learn.
7. More complete and thorough.
8. Avoids learning wrong way and having to relearn.

Question: What are some of the qualities that a good instructor must possess? Is the best operator always the best instructor? Is an older man better? Is an old timer in the department better?

Discussion

1. Job knowledge.
2. Patience.
3. Attention to details.
4. Ability to win confidence and inspire enthusiasm in the learner.

(The group will add others.)

Question: Let's develop a pattern for instruction. Assume we have a new employee, what are we going to tell him?

Discussion

1. Tell him about the job and where it fits into the department.
2. Show him how the operation is done—do it yourself at normal speed.
3. Be certain he understands the "why" of the job.

4. Let him perform the simple operations while you do the difficult ones.
5. Constantly impress the need for safety and quality.
6. Emphasize the problems that may arise and the way to handle them.
7. Let him do the whole operation slowly and then increase his speed.
8. Follow-up.

Question: Can the supervisor ordinarily handle all the instruction in the department himself? How do we select the persons to assist? What will you look for in the man you select? What instruction will you give him? Can the supervisor develop a program for instructing those persons he selects to do the instructing?

Discussion

From the group.

Question: How important a responsibility is instruction? Have we overemphasized it? Do we give it sufficient time at present? How much time daily should we devote to it? What can we do about it?

Discussion

From the group.

CONFERENCE OUTLINE FOR CHAPTER X—INTRODUCING THE NEW EMPLOYEE TO HIS JOB

Objectives

1. To develop in the supervisor a recognition of the importance for properly introducing every new employee to his job.
2. To discuss the methods and techniques available to supervisors for introducing new employees.

Introduction

In the previous discussions we have emphasized the differences between the supervisor and his men. The major differences are: (1) the men work with machines and materials, (2) the supervisor works with men in addition to the machines and materials in his department. Machines may be operating perfectly, materials may be the best possible, but unless the men are properly instructed and adjusted to their work, and understand their place in the organization and the company policies, they will not be satisfied workers-in-the-work unit. The supervisor is responsible for developing every man in his department to the point of being a satisfied employee with high morale and the first step in the process is properly introducing each new employee at the time of entry into the department.

Question: What are the factors necessary to produce a well-balanced, satisfied employee? Let us analyze an employee who is happy and has high morale. What does he have? (Develop a list on the blackboard.)

Discussion

1. Personal interest on part of supervisor.
2. Self-confidence.
3. Satisfactory working conditions.
4. Good leadership.
5. Thorough understanding of company policies.
6. A feeling that he is one of the group.

(The group will add to the list.)

Question: How will it help the company, the supervisor, and his department when an employee is a satisfied worker-in-his-work unit? (Develop a list on the blackboard.)

Discussion

1. Increased loyalty to the supervisor, the department, and the company.
2. High morale.
3. Efficient work.
4. Decrease in accidents and waste.
5. Decreased labor turnover

(The group will add to the list.)

Question: Let us as supervisors develop a program we can use in introducing employees in our department. What are the steps we must follow?

Discussion

1. Build his confidence in himself and in the company.
2. Explain, interpret, and sell the company policies.
3. Develop departmental pride.
4. Develop a pride in workmanship—make him quality-conscious.
5. Learn the capacities and interests of the new employee—show him his opportunities.
6. Explain "why" of anything he does not understand whenever it is within the supervisor's power to do so.

Question: How can we as supervisors go about giving this information to the new employees? What is the best method of doing this?

Discussion

1. Personal interview—at time he enters department and in follow-up talks and interviews with him.
2. As part of his instruction on job performance.
3. Booklet on company policies, if available.

Question: How can you detect lack of confidence, fear, inarticulate grievances in the new employee? (List on the blackboard.)

Discussion

1. Uneasiness.

2. Too agreeable.
3. Too talkative.
4. *Absurd questions.*
5. *Avoids contacts with you.*
6. *Low quantity or poor quality.*

(The group will add others.)

Question: How would you overcome embarrassment and shyness on the part of the new employee at the time you first meet him?

Discussion

1. Put him at ease.
2. Give him a chance to talk.
3. Find mutual interests.
4. Address him by his first name.

Question: How should we follow up new employees? How soon and how often? What about the man who is transferred to your department? Is he a different problem? How should you handle him?

Discussion

1. Depends on job and individual.
2. Several times first day.
3. Regular contacts thereafter.

Question: What is the purpose of properly introducing the new man? Is it worth the time and trouble? Will it pay the supervisor to devote time and effort to this responsibility?

Discussion

From the group.

CONFERENCE OUTLINE FOR CHAPTER XI—WAGE ADMINISTRATION AND MERIT RATING

Objectives

1. To consider the various factors that enter into wages.
2. To discuss the reasons why the supervisor must understand the proper methods of wage administration.
3. To consider rating men and the ways in which the supervisor can use ratings.

Introduction

The definition of the word "wages" as given by Webster is "Pay given for labor." As supervisors responsible for men and their labor, we find that an understanding of wages, how they are established, and what they do, is vital in maintaining our balanced relationship between management and men.

We must recognize the need for the supervisor's impartiality in his administration of wages in his department and the need of some form of rating to assist the supervisor in being impartial.

Question: What are the three kinds of wages? What does each mean to the man of the job? (List on the blackboard.)

Discussion

1. *Real*—services and commodities you can buy.
2. *Monetary*—actual cash.
3. *Intangibles*—schools, sewers, utilities, transportation.

Question: What are some of the things that determine wage rates? How do they determine the rates? Why are they considered as part of wage determination? (List on blackboard.)

Discussion

1. Plant location.
2. Competitive products.
3. Ability of company to pay.
4. Hazards in work.
5. Working conditions.
6. Labor supply.

(The group will add others.)

Question: Why should any supervisor be interested in wages? What can he accomplish through his interest in wages? What will happen if he is not interested?

Discussion

1. Maintain's employee's loyalty to company.
2. As an incentive for good work.
3. Uniformity of pay to his men.
4. Uniformity in overtime.
5. Responsibility for morale.
6. Cost responsibility.

(Discussion from the group.)

Question: What arguments will an employee use to get a raise? What answers are there to these arguments? Can a man be refused a raise and still be kept a satisfied worker-in-his-work unit?

Discussion

1. Rising cost of living.
2. Better than fellow on next machine.
3. Length of service.
4. "I've been faithful."

5. Safety record.
6. Basic rate too low.
7. Attendance.
8. Greater physical exertion.
9. Offered a better job.
10. He's a group leader.
11. Claims his job is more dangerous.
12. His increasing need.
13. He needs a new car.
14. He left a better job.

Question: What is rating? Why use ratings on employees? (List on blackboard.)

Discussion

1. To eliminate as much as possible any partialities or prejudices of a supervisor.
2. To stop "guesswork."

(The group will add others.)

Question: How can the supervisor use rating in his department? Is it of value? How do the men react to it?

Discussion

1. Recommendations for promotions.
2. Layoffs and recalls.
3. Rewarding men by assigning them to the better jobs that arise—minor promotions.
4. To check wage inequalities.

(Discussion from the group.)

Question: What results can the supervisor expect from rating? Why? How will it affect morale in the department? Will it help production? How can it be tied into wage administration?

Discussion

1. Fewer grievances from favoritism or partiality.
2. Higher morale and better cooperation.
3. Better employee workmanship resulting from a feeling of fair treatment.

(Discussion from the group.)

CONFERENCE OUTLINE FOR CHAPTER XII—TRANSFERS, PROMOTIONS, AND DISCHARGES

Objectives

1. To analyze those conditions under which the need for transfers arises and the methods best suited in making transfers.

2. To discuss problems involved in promotions and consider the various ways and means of solving these problems.
3. To emphasize the necessity for extreme care in demoting employees.
4. To discuss reasons for discharge and the records that are necessary.

Introduction

Throughout this series of conferences the importance of cooperation and coordination in the organization has been emphasized. The importance of finding and placing the right man on the right job has been repeated constantly. We have also recognized the fact that one of the supervisor's most important responsibilities is maintaining a satisfactory relationship with the men working under his control and direction. The use of transfers and promotions is one tool the supervisor must use with discrimination but so used it can aid him in establishing coordination and winning cooperation. We have also recognized the responsibility of the supervisor to both management and men. In meeting this responsibility, discharging men is sometimes necessary. When conditions arise requiring this action on the part of the supervisor, special care on his part is required.

Question: What are some of the conditions that may arise in your department that can be handled by transfers? What will lead the men to request transfers? When may it become necessary for the company to require transfers? When may the supervisor desire to make transfers?

Discussion

(List on blackboard.)

1. Expansion or contraction of department.
2. Shortage of men in another department.
3. Improper placement due to:
   a. Ability
   b. Personality
4. Change in employee's interests or capacities.
5. Changes in job requirements.
6. Desire of management to increase versatility.

(The group will add others.)

Question: What are some of the factors to be considered in connection with transfers? The company's interests? The men's interests? The costs involved? The department itself?

Discussion

1. Earnings.
2. Production.
3. Seniority problems.
4. Length of training period.
5. Future opportunity.

6. Availability of personnel to replace those transferred.
(The group will add others.)

Question: How can the personnel department be of assistance in the transfer process? How can the supervisor use the records available to him?

Discussion
From the group.

Question: What essential facts does the supervisor require before he can make sound decisions or promotions?

Discussion
(Use the blackboard.)
1. Know the job to be filled.
2. Know the men who might fill that job.
3. Select the best qualified man.
4. Train him for the new job.
5. Place him on the new job.

Question: When considering an individual for promotion what knowledge does the supervisor require? Where can he obtain this knowledge?

Discussion
1. Production.
2. Seniority.
3. Capacity.
4. Interests.
(The group will add others.)

Question: When is a demotion preferable to dismissal? To the company? To the man? What problems may a demotion raise?

Discussion
From the group.

Question: What are some of the instances you have encountered when demotion would have been preferable to discharge?

Discussion
From the group.

Question: What are some of the factors to be considered in demoting a man?

Discussion
1. Save his pride.
2. Find a job at the level at which he was last successful.
3. Transfer him to another department.

Question: What are the reasons for dismissal from our company?

Discussion

(List on the blackboard.) From the group, according to the company policy.

Question: What records must we maintain in connection with discharges?

Discussion

From the group, according to the company policy.

CONFERENCE OUTLINE FOR CHAPTER XIII—SAFETY AND SUPERVISION

Objectives

1. To consider the causes of accidents.
2. To discover the available methods to prevent accidents.
3. To analyze the relationship between accidents and costs.
4. To make the supervisor aware of his responsibility for the safety in his department.

Introduction

In a large mid-western city is a perfect example of the "before and after" safety training. This particular concern manufactured hinges and small stamping. For years it was famous as a slaughterhouse. Day after day the toll of accidents mounted. Finally insurance companies would not carry their compensation. Labor turnover was excessive, and help was hard to find. Finally the management was persuaded to hire a safety director. Cooperation with department heads brought immediate results. Three years ago this concern won the Regional Safety Award, two years ago they repeated, and last year they were second. Recognizing and meeting the responsibility for safety made the difference.

Question: What are some of the main causes of accidents? (List on the blackboard.)

Discussion

1. Lack of knowledge.
2. Lack of skill.
3. Carelessness.
4. Improper attitude.
5. Physical condition.
6. Showing off.

(The group will add others.)

Question: Is there such a thing as unavoidable accidents? If so, what are their causes?

Discussion

Yes.

1. Hidden flaws in machinery.
2. Sudden breakdown of lighting.
3. Weather conditions.

(The group will add others.)

Question: Does the time of the day have any bearing on accident frequency? If so, what hours are most dangerous?

Discussion

Yes. Third and fourth, seventh and eighth hours of each eight-hour shift.

Question: Can any relationship be traced between accidents and costs? What relationship? Is the supervisor responsible?

Discussion

From the group.

Question: What are the two classifications of costs with regard to accidents? What are the factors in each? Take an accident that recently occurred in the plant and analyze its costs.

Discussion

1. Direct costs.
2. Indirect costs.

(Discussion from the group.)

Question: How can accidents be prevented or at least controlled? Which of these methods is the most effective? Immediately? In the long run? (List on the blackboard.)

Discussion

1. By proper instruction.
2. Use of guards.
3. Developing the right attitude by:
   a. Men.
   b. Supervisor.
4. The supervisor's setting an example.
5. Posters.

(The group will add others.)

Question: What can the supervisor do to meet his responsibility for safety?

Discussion

From the group.

Question: Outline a detailed safety program for one of the departments represented in the group.

Discussion

From the group.

CONFERENCE OUTLINE FOR CHAPTER XIV—PROMOTING COOPERATION BETWEEN MEN AND BETWEEN DEPARTMENTS

Objectives

1. To analyze the meaning of cooperation.
2. To consider factors which hinder cooperation as well as factors contributing to the development of cooperation.
3. To discuss methods the supervisor should use to develop and maintain cooperation.

Introduction

We all do a great deal of talking about cooperation but how great an effort do we make to develop it? We are prone to expect cooperation from others rather than first thinking about giving it. We must recognize the need for giving cooperation before we can get it. It is a two-way process involving ourselves as well as others.

Question: What is cooperation? Who are involved in cooperation? What does it require? Is it a factor in coordination?

Discussion

Cooperation is the act of working together willingly and intelligently to achieve a common purpose.

(Discussion from the group.)

Question: What are some of the factors that hinder or prevent cooperation? (List on the blackboard.)

Discussion

1. Lack of planning.
2. Poor materials.
3. Unsatisfactory working conditions.
4. Lack of information.
5. Lack of training.

(The group will add others.)

Question: What factors will contribute to developing cooperation? How? (List on the blackboard.)

Discussion

1. Keeping the men informed.

2. Sound planning.
3. Giving men a square deal.
4. Definite lines of authority.
(The group will add others.)

Question: How can we develop methods and techniques to win cooperation from our men, our fellow supervisors, and our superiors? What knowledge do we need of individuals? Of groups? What other responsibilities must we meet as part of our program to develop cooperation? Does cooperation come easily? Quickly?

Discussion
From the group.

Question: We have said the ability to win cooperation requires a high degree of leadership. Is it worth the trouble? What are the results of cooperation? What will it do for us as supervisors? (Use the blackboard.)

Discussion
1. Develops high morale.
2. Makes smooth department operations.
3. Makes the supervisor's job easier.
4. Frees him to do planning in advance.
5. Brings him to the notice of his superiors.
(The group will add others.)

Question: Can we as supervisors plan a program of winning and holding the cooperation of our men? What are the steps in the program? How will we go about putting it into operation?

Discussion
From the group.

Question: Can the supervisor plan a program of winning and holding the cooperation of his men? What are steps in the program? How would he go about putting it into action? How will a check sheet help to get the facts and plan the solution?

Discussion
From the group.

CONFERENCE OUTLINE FOR CHAPTER XV—REDUCING ABSENTEEISM AND TARDINESS

Objectives
1. To discuss the causes of tardiness and absenteeism.
2. To develop constructive methods for handling absenteeism and tardiness and the problems they raise.

Introduction

Absenteeism consists of an employee's absence from his regular job regardless of the cause, and tardiness has reference to the employee's arrival at his place of work late. Absence and tardiness can cause a great deal of trouble to the supervisor in operating his department and the result of the efforts he makes to control them can be of considerable aid to him.

Question: Why are employees tardy? What are some of the results? Is it important to attempt to control or eliminate tardiness? Can tardiness increase departmental costs? Reduce cooperation and morale? (List on the blackboard.)

Discussion

1. Laziness.
2. Failure to realize the loss to themselves.
3. Lack of appreciation of what it does to others.
4. They think they can get away with it.

Question: What are some of the preliminary steps the supervisor can take to eliminate tardiness?

Discussion

1. Have a frank talk with the guilty employee.
2. Explain results of tardiness on the department.
3. Explain costs and losses.
4. Make records of cases and individuals.

Question: If an employee persists in tardiness what is the next step?

Discussion

The group should develop a plan.

Question: How will tardiness of the employees affect you as a supervisor?

Discussion

(List on the blackboard.)

1. Require more supervision to start shift.
2. Require changes in planning.
3. Require overtime or overstaffing.
4. Lowers morale of entire department.
5. General nuisance.

(The group will add others.)

Question: The group should develop a list of causes and remedies of tardiness following those listed on page 167.

Discussion

(List on the blackboard.)

Question: What are some of the common causes of absenteeism?

Discussion

1. Sickness.
2. Accident (industrial).
3. Accident (nonindustrial).
4. Intoxication.
5. Physical plant conditions, working environment.
6. Social environment.
7. Family conditions.

Question: What are some of the preliminary steps the supervisor can take to control absenteeism?

Discussion

From the group.

Question: When the supervisor cannot cure the employee, what is his next step?

Discussion

The group should develop a procedure.

CONFERENCE OUTLINE FOR CHAPTER XVI—PRODUCING AND MEASURING QUALITY

Objectives

1. To develop an appreciation of the importance of securing and maintaining quality.
2. To discuss the responsibility for producing quality and the means of securing quality.
3. To consider the measurement of quality, who does it, and how it is done.

Introduction

There is constant emphasis on quality. We seek quality in the articles we buy and endeavor to build quality into the work we produce. There is ever present pressure on the supervisor to maintain quality in the work his men perform. Mass production is based on fundamental principles, one of which is that of interchangeable parts. Interchangeable parts are only possible when the men meet the quality standards set for them on each and every part they produce.

Question: What do we mean by quality?

Discussion

1. Quality is the degree with which a particular product meets the standards set for it.

2. Quality is a standard set up by tests and experience.
3. Quality is the standard demanded by the customer.

Summarized: Quality is a standard or a specification the product must meet to be satisfactory.

Question: Where does the responsibility rest for quality? How can quality by each be maintained?

Discussion

1. The supervisor.
2. The machines.
3. The material.
4. The men.

Question: Let us list the causes and remedies for poor quality. How many of these exist in our departments? What can we do about it?

Discussion

(Develop list on the blackboard.)

CAUSE	REMEDY
Defective materials	Closer receiving inspection and inspection on previous operations
Defective machines	Careful setup and maintenance—training of men
Careless workmanship	Discipline—more instruction
Poor working conditions	Improve—better lights, etc.
Lack of cooperation	Develop cooperation
Poor inspection	Understand specifications

Question: Where does the responsibility rest for measuring quality? To what extent? What assistance does he have?

Discussion

The supervisor as a line officer is primarily responsible for quality being produced in his department. The inspection department is a staff department provided to assist the supervisor to measure and control quality. Its funtion is to inspect all or a specified number of parts produced to see that they meet the standards set for them.

Question: What are the steps the supervisor must take to maintain quality? What part do his men plan in quality?

Discussion

1. Understand the specifications.
2. Instruct the men properly.
3. Cooperation with inspection.
4. Maintenance of equipment.

(The group will add others.)

CONFERENCE OUTLINE FOR CHAPTER XVII—WASTE CONTROL

Objectives

1. To recognize the importance of waste and its cause.
2. To fix the responsibility for waste.
3. To set forth methods for controlling waste.
4. To analyze waste in our company.

Introduction

Waste could be the subject for a series of conferences. In this introductory conference we are concerned primarily with recognizing the responsibility for waste and considering the causes and remedies. Waste can be controlled only by concerted action on the part of management and the men. It involves, however, records, analysis, planning, cooperation, and discipline and it requires on the part of the supervisor the highest type of leadership.

Question: What is waste? Is it important? How important? What are the kinds of waste? Which do we see in our company?

Discussion

The improper use or failure to use time, men, materials or equipment. (From the group.)

Question: What are some of the causes of waste? (List on the blackboard.)

Discussion

1. Accidents.
2. Lack of supervision.
3. Carelessness.
4. Lack of planning or poor planning.
5. Improper materials.
6. Lack of standardization.
7. Lack of instruction.
8. Low morale.

(The group will add to this.)

Question: Where can the responsibility for each of the causes listed for waste be fixed? What can we do about it?

Discussion

The supervisor can:

a. Give proper instruction.
b. Plan soundly in advance.
c. Maintain proper records.

(The group will add to this list.)

Question: What can the men contribute to waste elimination? How can we make them waste-conscious? How can their cooperation be gained?

Discussion

From the group.

Question: What are some of the methods that can be used to control waste?

Discussion

1. Conferences.
2. Waste committees.
3. Bulletin boards.
4. Financial rewards.

(From the group.)

The group will develop wastes in their company under the headings in the chapter on waste, determine the causes, where possible fix the responsibility and determine the action to be taken. (Several conferences may well be held on this subject.)

CONFERENCE OUTLINE FOR CHAPTER XVIII—MAINTAINING DISCIPLINE

Objectives

1. To recognize clearly the two types of discipline—positive and negative.
2. To study the methods necessary to establish positive discipline within the department.
3. To determine the best methods to use when negative discipline is required.

Introduction

Every successful supervisor is found to have a well-disciplined group which emphasizes again the importance of the men in the success of the supervisor. These supervisors, however, consciously or unconsciously, have developed positive discipline among their men. There are two kinds of discipline, positive and negative, the former based on leadership and the latter on fear. When the supervisor directs and controls the efforts of his men in the right direction through positive discipline, he is well on his way to success.

Question: What is positive discipline?

Discussion

It is that force which prompts an individual or group to observe rules, regulations, and procedures that are necessary to attain an objective.

Question: How can the supervisor work toward developing discipline? (List on the blackboard.)

Discussion

1. Clearly laid down and understood rules, regulations, and procedures.
2. Impartial decisions.
3. Strong resourceful leadership.
4. Recognition of individual differences.
5. Balanced representation of management to men and men to management.

(The group will add others.)

Question: What is the first step the supervisor should take toward building positive discipline?

Discussion

Learn and practice self-discipline himself—set an example to his men.

Question: What are the personal traits a supervisor must avoid?

Discussion

1. Indecision.
2. Too much emotion.
3. Unfairness.
4. Partiality.

(The group will add others.)

Question: When is it necessary for the supervisor to use negative discipline?

Discussion

1. When actions of a group or individual are against established rules or regulations.
2. When that which is for the common good is offended.
3. When the group is endangered.

Question: What are some effective methods in administering negative discipline? Should you ever reprimand a man in public? Why not?

Discussion

1. Do it in private.
2. Make it certain.
3. Relate the penalty to the offense.
4. Be certain it meets with group approval.

CONFERENCE OUTLINE FOR CHAPTER XIX—RECORDS AND REPORTS

Objectives

1. To recognize the place and importance of reports and records in the operation of an enterprise.
2. To point out the supervisor's responsibility for reports and records.

3. To discuss the need for records in the supervisor's department.
4. To consider how reports and records can bring the supervisor to the attention of management.

Introduction

In order to operate effectively under the mass production methods and manufacturing procedures in effect today controls are required. These controls are based on reports and records. The larger the enterprise the more essential are reports and records but today even the one-man business cannot long survive without some reports and records. The supervisor who is report-conscious, who uses records, and who is capable of writing good reports will find these invaluable assets to him. He must realize, however, that reports and records are only another tool to use in his job of supervision. He must never develop reports and records to a point where they become red tape and he is controlled by them instead of their being one of his controls.

Question: What are reports? What are records? What is the advantage of records? Why are they essential to successful organization? Why does management need them?

Discussion

A report is a statement of facts concerning a particular situation. A good report contains all the pertinent facts bearing on the situation required to analyze the situation and reach sound decisions. Records are tabulations and summaries of written reports. Reports and records serve to replace memory and record facts at the time or shortly after they occur. (Use blackboard to outline the need of reports and records by management.)

Question: What is the supervisor's responsibility for reports and records? To management? To his men? To himself?

Discussion

1. To provide facts on which management can base decisions.
2. To check on decisions and judgment in the past.
3. To operate according to schedules.
4. To facilitate the development of system.
5. To enable the exception principle to operate.
6. To be impartial.
7. To assist in planning.

(The group will add others.)

Question: What are some of the essentials in handling standardized reports? How should special reports be written?

Discussion

Reports should be complete, clear, legible and on time. Special reports of any magnitude should begin with a summary of the facts, conclusion, and method. They should be written simply, clearly, concisely, and only in suffi-

cient detail as required by the subject. Charts, graphs, statistical tables should be used.

Question: What standardized reports do we have? Let us take several and analyze them. Who fills them out? Does the supervisor use them? Why? How? Who else uses them? What opportunities do we have for special reports? Discuss one of these special reports.

Discussion

Discussion by the group using company illustrations.

Question: What need is there for the supervisor to keep records or require reports other than those required by other departments? Is a notebook on his men of value? How? Can he keep records on other factors in his department that may later serve as a basis of a special report?

Discussion

The supervisor must keep records on his men. He cannot afford to depend on his memory for decisions regarding promotion, discharge, transfer. There are operating problems in his department he may require reports and records on for a temporary period until the problem is met. (Discussion from the group.)

Question: Can the handling of reports and records raise the status of the supervisor in the eyes of management?

Discussion

The ability to use records and reports and the skill of writing good reports will bring the supervisor to the attention of management. The ability to develop facts, to use facts, and to make decisions are skills management seeks in men for executive positions.

CONFERENCE OUTLINE FOR CHAPTER XX—THE SUPERVISOR AND LABOR RELATIONS

Objectives

1. To develop a realization on the part of the supervisor of his responsibility in relation to the broad problem of *labor relations.*
2. To acquaint the supervisor:
   a. With the provisions of the National Labor Relations Act.
   b. With his responsibility in relation to the Act.
   c. With the employer's responsibility and rights under the Act.

Introduction

1. The personnel department is merely a staff department whose functions are largely facilitative.
2. In the final analysis real personnel relations are closely tied in with the day-by-day satisfactions or lack of satisfactions of the employees.

3. The National Labor Relations Act represents organized labor's attempt to promote collective bargaining and unionism by legislation.

Question: How does organic unity function in labor relations?

Discussion

1. Institutional policies must hang together.
2. Published policies in employees' handbooks should conform to the foreman's practices.
3. Legal regulations regarding safety, hours of work, overtime payment should be observed to the letter.

(Members of the conference should add other items.)

Question: Discuss the practice of "by-passing" the supervisor.

Suggested Discussion

Answer the following questions:

1. List cases that came under your observation either within or without your company illustrating:
   a. Unintentional "by-passing."
   b. Intentional "by-passing."
   c. Results in *a* and *b*.
2. What organizational change, if one be needed, would have corrected the tendency to "by-pass"?
3. What inherent defect caused the "by-pass"?
   a. How did the defect develop?
   b. What can be done to correct the situation?

National Labor Relations Act

1. When was the Act passed?
2. What was the atmosphere or general setting in which the Act was passed?
3. On what legal basis or authority does the Act rest? Remember that the Federal Government only has the authority granted to it by the Constitution. It would be well for every supervisor to reread the Constitution.
4. List each of the unfair labor practices in the law. Discuss how each one of these practices in actual operations have developed. Give cases.
5. What is a logical basis for the unit in collective bargaining?
6. What are the rights of the employee under the N.L.R. Act? Is the employee protected by the Act from coercion from members of a union which he does not want to join?
7. What are the employer's rights under the N.L.R. Act?
8. What rights and obligations does the foreman have under the N.L.R Act? List them.

Summary

1. Objectives of the Act.
2. Operations of the Act.
3. How to make it work.

APPENDIX C

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